

[From the St. Louis Globe.]

# A PRACTICAL DISCUSSION OF THE GREAT SOCIAL QUESTION OF THE DAY.

BY WM. G. ELIOT.

*President of Washington University, St. Louis*

No subject now before the public is more important or deserves more careful consideration than that which is here called the

## SOCIAL EVIL QUESTION.

In England, for the last eight years, and especially since 1869, it has received the closest attention, and the effort to extend to the whole civil population the "contagious diseases" act, originally passed with sole application to the army and military stations, has raised such a storm of indignation throughout the land, and especially among the middle classes, as not only to defeat it, but, by reason of the knowledge of the whole subject now diffused among the people, to make it probable that the army act will itself be repealed.

In France, particularly in Paris, where the registration and medical inspection system has been in operation for seventy-five or more years, the topic has been thoroughly and exhaustively discussed for twenty years past, both by physicians and police authorities, with such an amount of exact statistical information as to insure the most important results. The range which the discussion has taken includes all Europe, and goes back to the thirteenth century, but the Parisian experience is by far the most valuable, because it has passed under the eyes of scientific men, aided by the most thoroughly organized police system in the world. It has also had the advantage of being almost exclusively regarded as a *sanitary* question, free from the moral and religious considerations which have a preponderating influence in America and England. It constitutes, therefore, the principal court of appeal by which every system or theory can be tried, with the certainty of an intelligent verdict.

The statistics of other European communities, however, aid us greatly in the inquiry. The

"regulation" experiment, in every variety of form, has been tried in Holland and Belgium, in Berlin, in Strasburg, in the cities of Spain, in Naples, in Copenhagen, and elsewhere. In a few instances it has had the sanction of the Church, and the recognized houses of prostitution have then had the benefit of religious services and ecclesiastical supervision; but, generally speaking, the Church everywhere has refused the compromise, and has tried the severest system of repression, as at Rome, and, we regret to say, with the reverse of favorable results.

Nowhere, as yet, although we are in the nineteenth century, has the Christian experiment of combined kindness and condemnation of sin equally in man and woman been tried, or even so much as deliberately proposed. It would probably, even now, after a complete failure of every other system, be pronounced chimerical and absurd. When we have exhausted all methods of quackery, we may come at last to the great teacher of humanity, Jesus Christ.

Whether the present inquiry can lead us to a positive and well-matured plan of action, further than to indicate the direction in which we ought to move, may, perhaps, be reasonably doubted, nor is it my intention to undertake the task. My purpose is much more humble, and goes no farther than to examine the St. Louis system by the light of experience (including our own brief trial of it), and by the known principles of human nature, of which experience, if fairly tested, is sure to give full confirmation. For short periods of time, and under peculiar circumstances, statistics may contradict, or seem to contradict, such principles; but in the long run, and on a large scale, we are sure to find such uniformity of result as will vindicate the laws of reason and common sense.

Fortunately, in the present case, if we can lay aside theorizing and crude discussion long enough

to look with diligent scrutiny at the facts, there is no conflict of testimony. It is given with different degrees of emphasis, but always, in all the cities and communities named, and in many others, and in all ages, with the same final sentence

#### OF ABSOLUTE CONDEMNATION

of all such systems as that which, under an overstrained construction of the law, has been established here in St. Louis. After a diligent perusal of a mass of documents, which, considering the loathsome subject under treatment and its disgusting details, are enough to repel examination and almost justify one in throwing them into the fire, and consigning the whole matter to those who, in one way or another, make their living by it, I am unable to find any practical justification of the experiment here made. We cannot but express extreme astonishment that, where such immense interests are at stake, a social system has been introduced, without general consent either asked or given, which, if it has not assured success to recommend it, is an abomination absolutely without excuse.

If there had been a sure prospect of sanitary success—if the experience of other communities had proved it so—if their statistics had shown a marked diminution of disease to such a degree as to shield the innocent—if they could further show a decrease of prostitution and an improved condition of male and female prostitutes, with an increased tendency to reform—the case would have been different. Even then the system has some features inseparable from it and from all registration and inspection systems, so atrociously vile, so partial and unjust, so subversive of all American ideas of personal liberty, so degrading to women and destructive of their self-respect, that nothing short of necessity could reconcile us to its continuance. Let us, for a moment, consider one aspect of it.

A large but indefinite number of women, American citizens and human beings, though "sinners" and offenders against law, are placed under the almost absolute control of an authorized police, composed of men respectable in their place but not likely to possess peculiar qualifications for so difficult a task, and subjected weekly, whether diseased or not, to compulsory examination, or "physical explorations," by men who, though physicians, may or may not possess that high tone of moral purpose and training absolutely indispensable to divest their awful business from the coarseness to which, in spite of the greatest care, it is continually liable to descend. They must school themselves, under a painful sense of duty, to perform their work at the same time accurately and with gentleness, or they are unfit to do it at all. The examinations, to be thorough and successful, must fre-

quently be instrumental and microscopic, nor must either the operator or the subject shrink from the closest investigation. To such an inquisition must a thousand women be subjected every week. Although an average of ninety per cent. are pronounced free from disease, among whom there are many not yet hardened beyond redemption, and who keenly feel the degradation and tyranny of which they are made the victims. Some of them are young, perhaps only a few months removed from the kindly influences of respectable homes. Many of them are women of fair education and natural refinement, especially among those who are called "the better class," who are inmates of the "best" brothels or occupants of private rooms. But all must be treated with equal strictness, if the law is to do any good, for it is among the "higher class" that the men who carry disease to the innocent are most likely to come.

It is a great mistake to class all fallen women together under one sweeping censure of contempt, as if they were all absolutely vile and irreclaimable. Not only are they quite as good, in the average, as the male prostitutes who visit them, according to the manly and bold declaration of our honorable Mayor, but many of them are a great deal better. The "medical examiner," who says that every such woman is already so degraded that no personal indignity can sink her lower, proves his own entire unfitness for his work. The head women of brothels, no doubt, favor the inspection law, and are, perhaps, not required personally to submit to it, but the testimony from every city where such laws are in force is clear, that women even of the lowest order feel the deeper degradation to which "inspection" brings them, and use their utmost ingenuity to escape from it.

In England, Dr. Balfour, a leading army surgeon, objects to the periodical examination of licentious soldiers (who are nearly all from the lowest ranks of society), "because it tends to destroy their self-respect," although they are examined, of course, by doctors of their own sex, and the inspection is far less intricate. Is it any better for women, except that they are more powerless to resist? If, here in St. Louis, a thousand male profligates could be selected, which would be quite practicable, for such an experiment in the prevention of disease, by periodical inspection, how many of them would submit, and how long would it be before we should learn from the courts that American citizens, though vicious and criminal, have rights which the law itself is bound to respect? Is the helplessness of women a sufficient plea for their being oppressed?

A law such as this is a dangerous experiment, even when its execution is intrusted to the most conscientious and discreet men. If at any time it

should happen to fall into the hands of the unprincipled and profligate, the most distressing results would be inevitable.

Nor can the injustice stop here, Dr. Leon Lefort, the eminent head surgeon of the Hospital "du Midi" of Paris, after a large and scientific experience of twenty years, has publicly declared, so great is the ingenuity of women in hiding themselves from registration and inspection, that *the number and powers of the police must be vastly increased* to make the law effective in the prevention of disease. At present, as the result of the greatest diligence, four thousand are registered annually, of whom one thousand annually disappear, while thirty thousand are known to the police as clandestine prostitutes, over whom they can get no legal control. Dr. Lefort recommends that there should be a police force large enough to reach and control fifty thousand women, with power to call up every women of "doubtful virtue" for inspection, and to compel them to reside in registered houses for periodical examination. This extraordinary proposition he has deliberately enounced, because in Paris, *where the registration system has been in force for eighty years*, the contagious diseases have increased to such a degree, *in all classes of society*, that the severest and most comprehensive measures are needed to protect the national health.

It is in the face of such experience, long ago published to the world, that our Board of Health, after nine months of superficial empiricism, had the boldness to predict that they would soon be able to "give to mankind" (i.e. to the St. Louis part of it) "an almost certain immunity from the effects of a disease that has cursed the human race from the dawn of the earliest civilization to the present hour." [See Report of March 25, 1871.]

A singular degree of inexperience, by the way, for medical men, is evinced by the whole of that report, both as to the general operation of registration laws, and, what is still more remarkable, of the disease itself against which they are directed. I am not a medical man, but I have been led by duty, during twenty years past, to read somewhat extensively upon this subject, and I think that no experienced physician can read the report referred to, and we may include several others since made, without surprise.

Our Board of Health and City Council have undoubtedly meant well, and we feel no disposition to find fault, except that in a practical subject of such enormous magnitude and difficulty they did not act with greater deliberation and after more extended inquiry. The subject is evidently one comparatively new to them, and in comparison with the state of knowledge in Paris, and London and Berlin, the alphabet is here yet to be learned.

We well know the terrible nature of the disease

in question and its fearful ravages, not only among the guilty, but the innocent. Since its first recognized appearance in Europe, in the fifteenth century—previous to which date it was not known at all, or only in such slight degree as to attract no attention—it has been a desolation and scourge. In its worst forms it is so subtle that its course can with difficulty be traced. It poisons the constitution, and may be imparted to others by those who have no outward or distinguishable marks of it themselves. It may be propagated months and years after it seems to have been cured. The purity of womanhood and the helplessness of infancy afford no certainty of escape. In England, taking the medical record of 1855, out of four hundred and sixty-eight deaths of females from syphilis, three hundred and eighteen were children under five years of age.

It is true, and we thankfully admit that since the sixteenth century the virulence of the disease has steadily decreased to such a degree that it is comparatively manageable now, and the cases of disfigurement and death, as its direct result, are continually becoming less, under the judicious treatment of medical skill. It may be that the present actual extent of the evil and of the sufferings from it have been greatly exaggerated, but our hopes must not be permitted to blind us to the truth, and we are compelled to admit enough to startle and almost confound us.

We acknowledge, therefore, the greatness of the evil against which society is called upon to contend. We sympathize with and would cordially help all those who, by fair and just means, are endeavoring to exterminate or even to lessen it. The vital question is, What shall those means be? For, not only may the remedy be worse than the disease, which is possible even in this extreme case, but, what is more exactly to the point in our present inquiry, the remedy may fail in its expected results, and may fatally increase the evils which it is intended to prevent or cure. Our desire is, freeing ourselves from all mere sentimentalism and sympathetic prejudice, to look at facts with calm and judicial severity of judgment, so that we may reach an honest and just conclusion at last.

Nor are we able to stand with those who take the exclusive moral and religious view of the subject, in the interpretation of "disease as the penalty of guilt," under the just operation of the Divine law, which it would not be right for us to remove if we could. It is written, "whosoever defileth the temple of God," that is, his own body, "him shall God destroy," and the physical corruption which attends the moral debasement of profligacy and intemperance is but the fulfillment of the Divine word. Yet, if it were in our power, we would gladly cure every drunkard of "delirium tremens," and every

1) Versus the "Contag. Dis. Act" <sup>over</sup>

Dr. MacLaughlin, after practice of 27 years in Paris, during which he pursued a rigorous system of "confrontations" in connection with the French police & surgeons, asserts that it was "excessively rare" for them to discover the source of infection in the female. Vintras testified before the Venereal Commission, that almost all local sores ~~productive~~ of true syphilis were, in Paris, derived from women who made prostitution their sole business, and who were registered & periodically examined. <sup>Tournier,</sup> Dr. Evans, an army surgeon, Mr. Skey & M. Simon ~~th~~ have given full testimony to the same effect. Lord. Med. Record, Feb. 1871 - Am. J. Med. Sci. Jan. 1874.

2

A petition against a proposed  
"Contagious Diseases Act" in the Penna.  
Legislature, <sup>April 11, 1874,</sup> ~~was~~ <sup>was</sup> numerously  
signed by physicians, many of them  
leading Hospital as well as College  
men. It would work worse in this  
country than in Europe; almost certainly;  
and it has not worked well there.

over

"profligate," male or female, of disease. We may say, and perhaps truly, that it serves them right; but there is no danger that the wrong-doer will escape the just judgments of God. If anything is sure in the moral world, it is that our "sins will find us out." But it does not follow that we should pass pharisaical judgments upon each other. Much less should we refuse to relieve the suffering of the guilty because it is the penalty of their sin. Society is not yet so pure, in the respect now considered, that such a self-righteous course can be justly recommended. The tower of Siloam did not fall upon all "the sinners of Jerusalem," perhaps not upon the worst of them. In the most respectable assembly that can be brought together, when the denunciations of sin are most severely spoken and the "abandoned" are held up to the bitterest contempt, the word "let him that is without sin among you" would shut many a mouth, clerical and laical, and disarm many a hand. We would recommend every moral oculist first to cast out the beam from his own eye. Then when it is cast out, we shall see clearly, as He saw, who said, "Woman, neither do I condemn thee. Go, and sin no more." I firmly believe that until we are able to speak and act in that spirit, we have no right to sit in judgment upon the sinful, nor to interpret the judgments of God against sin.

Not only, therefore, for the redemption of the guilty, but to alleviate the penalties of guilt, are we ready to work. Still more, and, if possible, for still stronger reasons, do we acknowledge our social obligation to protect the innocent from undeserved sufferings, which they themselves have no power to avert.

The plain question to which we must at last come is simply this: Is the regulation system, such as that now established in St. Louis, well calculated to lessen the amount of prostitution and the physical diseases which it creates, to such a degree as to justify its continuance, notwithstanding its moral obnoxiousness, its gross partiality and the many practical evils which are inseparable from it. If not its instantaneous repeal should be insisted upon.

For decision of the question we look—

1. To our own brief and imperfect experience here.
2. To the recent experience of England in the operation of the "contagious diseases" act.
3. To the longer and full experience of Paris, and some other European cities.
4. To the general principles of human nature and human law, which are everywhere the same.

A careful and dispassionate examination of these points will be presented in the "GLOBE" to-morrow.

## No. II.

Following the course of discussion yesterday indicated, we proceed to consider

### THE EXPERIENCE OF ST. LOUIS.

The regulation system was begun in this city July 25, 1870, at which time the first registration of women was completed, 718 names being entered. In course of the next eight months 229 additional names were registered, making a grand total of 947 women; but a large part of these never came practically under the system, because, "being poor, depraved and reckless," as the report of the Board of Health states, "they could not comply with the requirements of the law in the matter of fees and dues under it, and hence were compelled either to give up their vocation, be treated as common vagrants and sent to the workhouse, or take up their residence in some other city." In all probability a good many remained in the city or suburbs, and hid themselves from the police by taking some nominal occupation or by frequent change of abode.

At all events, when a new registration was made, March 25, 1871, the Board was able to make a "favorable showing," which was published almost with exultation, and which was to those not familiar with the first working of such laws, perfectly satisfactory. Taking the whole number registered (947) as the basis, it appeared that the diminution in eight months was forty-six per cent.; but taking the fairer basis of the first registration, which was probably much larger than the number which had ever been on the registered and inspected list, the comparison showed as follows:

The whole number of prostitutes had been reduced from 718 to 480, or thirty-three per cent.

The whole number of houses of ill-fame, from 119 to 99, or sixteen per cent.

The whole number in single rooms, from 205 to 121, or forty per cent.

The whole number of diseased, sent to hospital or treated at home, was fifty-eight, or eight per cent. of the whole, when the law went into force. At the new registration, only eighteen were diseased or under treatment, or three and three-fourths per cent. of the registered number.

The favorable change, which, by the figures, is very great, was claimed to be "mainly due to the law itself," and was regarded as its normal working, so that far better results for the future were confidently predicted. Most sincerely do we wish that it had been so, but unfortunately the powers of evil are not so easily conquered. In fact, they had scotched the snake, not killed it, and in all probability the number of prostitutes had not been diminished at all. To scatter a nest of hornets is a very different thing from its destruction. The report of March 25, 1871, is valuable, however, as affording a fair and acknowledged basis upon which to estimate the subsequent progress of the Board.

The report for 1873 has not yet appeared, but an official letter, signed by Dr. R. H. O'Brien, Clerk

of the Board of Health, in answer to the official inquiries of Sena'or Ittner, fortunately gives us all the data we need. By a singular oversight, however, of which Dr. O'Brien would probably not have been guilty if he had seen its practical importance, he passes over the March, 1871, report, in his comparative statement of the working of the law, and makes a direct comparison of the "registration just made by the police department" with the first registration of July, 1870. From this it appears that the total number of registered prostitutes had decreased from 718 to 653; the number of brothels had increased from 119 to 133; the number of "single-room women" had decreased from 205 to the insignificant number of 7. The result is declared with some exultation; but it is not unworthy of remark that the whole diminution comes from the "single-room" women, who compose the class that most easily hide themselves; that the brothels had actually increased more than ten per cent., and that the inmates of brothels numbered nearly the same as before.

Whether this is a satisfactory return for two years' labor, when we take all other considerations into account, we leave others to determine.

Dr. O'Brien further states that, in course of the two and a half years, 895 have been treated and cured of disease, and congratulates "the coming generation" upon the "sanitary benefits and blessings accrued, by so summarily stamping out, in so large a number of women, of this most loathsome of all diseases known to the human family;" to which words we call attention, not because of their moral significance, but because of the culpable ignorance of syphilitic diseases which the language evidently implies.

But let us go a step farther, and compare the present statistical facts given by Dr. O'Brien with those of the official report of March 25, 1871, as referred to above, and the favorable showing, such as it is, entirely disappears. From that date, when the Board had everything fairly in hand, to the present, the total number of registered women has increased from 480 to 653, or more than 35 per cent.; the number of brothels from 99 to 133, or 34 per cent.; and, what is still more startling, when the "stamping-out" process is examined, it appears that while the number of diseased women under treatment in 1871 was 18 out of 480, or 3 $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent., it has risen now to an average of 40 out of 653, or over 6 per cent. Showing the remarkable fact, to which, however, we can find a parallel in Paris itself, that even among the registered and regularly inspected prostitutes the hateful disease may increase; a result which, though unexpected, ought not to surprise us so long as the male prostitutes are themselves exempt from medical inspection. But

what shall we say of a sanitary system which is liable to such failure as this?

In fact, the whole reports of our Board of Health lead us to think either that the "inspection" is extremely superficial, or that the worst diseased classes are seldom reached. In Berlin it is on record that among the lowest classes forty or fifty per cent. of disease is sometimes found. In Paris, among clandestine prostitutes, twenty per cent. is expected and generally found, and only by the utmost care, among the most strictly guarded, does the average sink so low as it seems to have begun with here.

We confess, however, that we attach little importance to our St. Louis statistics, on whichever side they may seem to stand. Not only have they evidently been kept by inexperienced hands, so that they sometimes contradict each other, but they cover so brief a term, and have been gathered from such imperfect data, that if we had no other experience to guide us we might reasonably be left in doubt. It is only when we see that the *tendency* already establishing itself is the same that we find elsewhere, and that we are beginning to repeat the experience of the European cities, almost before the system is thoroughly at work, that our less than three years' trial assumes importance. We might reasonably have expected our first experience to have been much more favorable, for its universal and inevitable abuses have not yet had time to show themselves; and the increase of vice, which is the sure result of a lowered tone of public morals, especially when the relation of the sexes is concerned, and which must everywhere be followed by the increase of prostitution and disease, has scarcely begun to bear its natural fruit.

It is sometimes asserted, as an offset to the hardship of registration and inspection, that the women, being made more orderly, especially in the street, are less frequently brought under the severities of criminal laws. Perhaps that may be the case with those who quietly submit; but a comparison of the police reports of our faithful and humane Chief, for the years 1871 and 1872, is not encouraging in that respect, to say the least. The year 1871, ending March 31st, shows that out of 3,722 females arrested, 1,526 were prostitutes, and 218 keepers of bawdy houses (the Board of Health report of the same date shows 480 registered prostitutes and ninety-nine keepers!), being a total of 1,744, or forty-six per cent. of all females arrested. The year 1872 shows that out of 3,187 females arrested, 2,613 were prostitutes and 71 keepers of houses, or a total of 2,684, being over sixty-four per cent. of all females arrested, and an increase of 940 prostitutes arrested, or eighteen per cent. more than the previous year. As W. Jenkins, Chief of the Louisville Police, says, "Comment is unnecessary." In

all the European cities where "regulation" is the rule, the unregistered or clandestine prostitutes, particularly those of the lower class, are hunted down by the police as if they were vermin or wild beasts.

It also seems taken for granted by every one who defends the present system of "regulation" that it stands *in contrast with*, and avoids the disadvantages of, the *repression* system that elsewhere prevail. This is a serious mistake. The regulation system may create a monopoly, a peculiar registered class, which is recognized and authorized to "ply their vocation," but *outside* of that it aims, and its main use consists in this, to suppress all prostitution, in whatever shape. Now, as in every city, without any exception, where the experiment has been tried, the clandestine prostitutes far outnumber the registered,—generally in the proportion of seven to one,—the labor of suppression is not at all diminished in amount, while it is very greatly increased in difficulty. In fact, the regulation system, after being in operation a few years, retains all the difficulties and severities of the repression plan, great and serious as they are, and adds so many evils, moral, physical and social, that they cannot be numbered. In St. Louis we have scarcely yet begun to see them, but the laws of human nature are steadfast, and what has proved true elsewhere will, in due time, show itself here. The police reports already show it, for, in all probability, very few of the 2,684 arrests of profligate women in 1872, perhaps none of them, were upon the registered list. The "regulation" theory is that if all lewd women could be kept under the registration and inspection law, disease would be "stamped out." The facts show the contrary to be true, even with regard to the registered, but the hope of so controlling and keeping within bounds the wickedness and ingenuity of profligate women, who love their liberty if they love anything, implies a degree of ignorance of woman's nature which would not commonly be looked for in practical men. Not one-half of the whole number, under the most favorable circumstances, can be kept on the regulation list.

#### THE EXPERIENCE IN ENGLAND.

In England the experience has been short, and statistics are not easily obtained. The Contagious Diseases Act was passed in 1864, to apply to four districts—Portsmouth, Devonport, Sheerness and Chatham. It was subsequently extended to Woolwich, Aldershot, Windsor, Shorncliffe and Colchester. In 1869 it was still further extended, with increased powers, to seven other districts, also increasing the radius of territory around the towns from five to fifteen miles. The police are clothed with power to require any suspected woman to sub-

mit herself for examination, and the officer's own suspicion, without proof, is accounted sufficient. Altogether, the law is very severe and arbitrary, and as the soldiers, for whose benefit it was passed, are under absolute control, and the staff of physicians is chosen with great care, the opportunities for a faithful execution of the law have been exceptionally good, and far better than could ever be expected in this country. Yet the experience of all the districts named, as appears from the hospital and army records, and the registry of the prostitute population, shows a continued change for the worse. For these statistics we depend upon the carefully prepared publications of eminent surgeons and civilians, and although there is some conflict of testimony, I am entirely satisfied of the general correctness of the figures given.

In six of the towns and military districts named, during the five years previous to the passage of the act, a marked decline in "disease" among the troops had been taking place, so that in a force of 6,000 men the cases had decreased, in the time named, by a total of 704. In the four years after the act took effect, the improvement in health was checked more than twenty-five per cent. In Devonport and Portsmouth, in the four years before the act, the decrease of cases, in a force of 2,000 soldiers, was 317, without legislation; in the four years after the regulation system began, instead of a decline of cases, there was an increase. In Shorncliffe, Woolwich and Aldershot, in six years before the act, among 3,000 soldiers, the diminution of cases was 468; in two years after the act was in force, the number increased by fifty-four cases. These figures are from the official war office statistics, as given by Dr. Balfour, the head of the statistical branch of the Medical Department. The police return, which is given in the Parliamentary Blue Book, is also conclusive as to the inefficiency of the system. From the adoption of the extended act in 1866, the annual ratio per cent. of mean strength of men suffering from disease advanced in three years from  $17\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. to  $19\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. The explanation of this is found in the increased libertinism growing out of expected impunity. To the same effect is the fact taken from the Government tables, that the total number of women sent to the "Lock Hospitals" in the "regulated" districts was, in 1867, only 1,977; in 1868 it was 4,363; in 1869 it was 4,767.

Dr. Wolfaston says, in a letter published May, 1870, "My opportunities for forming an opinion have been ample. I was for five years, commencing three months before the act of 1864 came into operation, Resident Medical Officer at the Royal Albert Hospital, Devonport, in which all the women subjected to the act have been treated. During this time about 1,500 women, representing 4,000

admissions, were brought under my immediate notice. I am opposed to the present acts because I believe they have failed to effect any material improvement in the health of the soldiers and sailors; that they have greatly increased clandestine prostitution (and with it disease among the civil population) and illegitimacy."

Mr. Parsons, whose long experience gives authority to his opinions, declares, in confirmation of the above, that, in five years under the operation of the act, the number of known prostitutes in the three towns, Portsmouth, Plymouth and Devonport, had more than doubled. The statement rests upon a census actually taken.

The same general statements are put by different authorities (of which I have a large number before me) in different ways and with many painful details, showing the terrible hardships suffered by the women and the demoralizing influences of the "act," both upon the soldiers and sailors and the community at large. But we pass to the experience of the British troops in

#### BENGAL,

where, under very different social circumstances, the same results appear; for in the army of 38,000 men the ratio of disease increased in a single year, under the pernicious influence of the regulation act, full thirty per cent., and precisely from the same causes of supposed safety before named, while the women were sufferers to an equal degree.

#### EUROPEAN CITIES.

In Berlin, and Brussels, and Hamburg, and Rotterdam, and the Hague, it is but the same experience repeated over and over again, with the same invariable results. Wherever the regulation and inspection system is adopted, prostitution and its attendant disease and general profligacy increase. The number of registered women is always small in comparison with the "clandestine" ones, and from these latter the worst evils come. In Berlin there are less than 2,000 registered, but more than 13,000 besides inscribed on the books, over whom the law gets no steady control.

In Brussels, a small city, where the Parisian rules are enforced even more rigidly than in Paris, out of 666 women, of whom 315 were registered and 350 clandestine, the number sent to hospital in course of the year 1868 was 381, or over fifty per cent.

At the Hague, in Holland, Dr. Huet, Prefect of Police, says: "The number of 'clandestine' women cannot be estimated, and are continually increased. You ask me if the laws of regulation work well for morality? I reply, no! Do they work well for suppression of syphilis? I reply, no! Do they really diminish disease? My opinion is, no, no, no!" Such is the testimony of one who combines

the qualifications for judgment of a surgeon and prefect of police.

#### BUT TO THE EXPERIENCE OF PARIS

we must turn as the strongest authority, and it is here that we find the severest condemnation of all. I have before me a great mass of statistics which rest upon the authority of Ducachatel, Lecour, Lefort, and others who have the sanitary interests of the city in their charge, and the testimony is all in one way. With extreme difficulty, by all the skill of men and women detectives, and at the cost of great severity on the part of the police, less than one-seventh of the known profligate women are kept on the registration and inspection list. Among these the greatest degree of skill is exercised, but Ricord, Ratier and Sandouville say that weekly inspection is merely absurd, and to be effective it must be made every second or third day with the closest scrutinizing care. As the general result, Lefort, the hospital surgeon, says "the inspections do not suffice. As it is, syphilis is increasing in Paris, not only because of the clandestine prostitutes (of whom twenty per cent. are diseased), but because the examinations of the registered do not answer their end." This testimony is conclusive; and yet more positive is that of M. Lecour, Chief de Bureau des Mours, the man responsible for carrying out this system in Paris, who has recently drawn up a statistical report for governmental use, showing complete failure, and closing with these words: "Therefore we see that by science we have not diminished but increased the evil."

Does anything more need to be said? Surely it is not wise for this American city to begin such a career of infamy, to end in so pitiable a result.

The same M. Lecour declares, as the result of his most careful estimates, that the number of venereal patients in Paris in the year 1868 was 47,500. He sums up his general testimony as follows: "All these results prove that prostitution is increasing, and that it is now more dangerous than ever to the public health. Has the action of the police been relaxed? No; on the contrary, it has more powerfully organized its means of repression, of surveillance, and of sanitary control. It has never been more active than now (1870). This is proved by the fact that the daily arrest of unsubmitted girls is on the increase. The evil is a moral and social one, and cannot be controlled by the police, who can neither restrain nor destroy it. The number of permitted houses is diminishing. That sounds well. But the unregistered women continually increase, and the difficulties encountered by the police are innumerable. The evil must be overcome by moral, not by legislative means."

Remember that this is not the word of a "sentimental religionist," nor even a moralist. It is the

John Simon of London.  
Dr. Norris of Liverpool.  
Burns Thompson, Edinburgh.  
S. Haughton, ~~subl.~~ vs. C. D. acts.  
Dr. Despres, many

years physician to  
the great Hospital  
of the Lourcine, op-  
poses "regulation" from  
the pure hygienic standpoint  
as tending to increase the evil.

Professor Rolleston of Oxford  
is against C. D. acts.

So is the great pioneer  
in Social Science, H. Spencer.  
Lebert of Breslau, too!

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT  
OF THE  
Moral Education Society of Philadelphia.

---

Though known to comparatively few of the people of this city, the above named Society has been laboring in our midst for nearly three years.

In 1873 a small band of women organized for a concentrated effort to arouse parents and guardians of the young to a realizing sense of the present insufficient education of the physical and moral nature of children, and the vital importance of so enlightening them that they may be spared the sure penalties of the violated laws of their being.

Their first efforts were directed against Dr. Cressler's "Social Evil Bill," brought before the Legislature of this State, and designed to license prostitution throughout our Commonwealth. A full account of this work was published in our last year's report. As a fear was entertained that the effort to pass this bill might be renewed; part of last winter's work was directed to prevent such a calamity. A large number of signatures to petitions were obtained throughout the State; correspondence was held with members of the Legislature, who promised to act with us in the best interests of morality. A committee waited upon Judge Pierce to learn if a prohibitory bill could be drawn up, as in Illinois, to prevent legislation in this direction; he deemed such a measure unadvisable until further action of the Legislature. This, with faith in the vigilance of our friends at Harrisburg, induced us to lay aside this branch of labor early last winter.

One thousand copies of Dr. Cressler's Bill, with a heading attached, calling the attention of the public to the unjust and degrading effects of the same, were printed and circulated by a lady in sympathy with our work.

"The Shield," a paper published in London in the

interest of the reform movement being carried on in England against the "Contagious Diseases Acts," was brought to the Society and very edifying extracts read from it.

An account of Mrs. Josephine E. Butler's labors in France, Italy and Switzerland against the laws regulating "The Social Evil," and the recital of the enthusiastic support and sympathy which she received from those high in authority and intelligence in those countries, was especially inspiring, and encouraged us to go on, if slowly, yet unfalteringly, in our work, endeavoring to raise the standard of morality and make it equal for both sexes, as it certainly is before God.

Especially would we endeavor to instruct the young of this generation to revere purity and to have faith in this truth—as the body is, so must the soul be.

Dr. J. R. Black's work, "Ten Laws of Health," with some others, were added to our small free circulating Library.

Mrs. Hale, who has spent some years in Nebraska, establishing a reform school for girls, addressed the Society, giving her idea of how the work should be done, and urging us to form similar schools where

girls can be taught the science of life. Pamphlets were circulated impressing upon parents the duty of being plain and truthful in answering all questions of children concerning the problems of life.

It is earnestly desired that all who are interested in our work will join us, as our numbers are few, and much work needs to be done.

MRS. HARRIET S. FRENCH, *President.*

MRS. EMMA WISE, *Secretary pro tem.*

*October, 1875.*

careful and reluctant testimony of the Chief of Police, who regards the moral question only so far as it bears on the sanitary condition of the city under his control. It is an expression of despair after a long and systematic trial of regulation laws, with the best organized police force that the world ever saw. The distinguished French author of "The Poor Girl of the Nineteenth Century," who has devoted a whole life to the interests of the abandoned and forsaken, after going over the whole field of Parisian profligacy, exclaims, "France is the Prostitute of Nations!" Shall we make St. Louis the Paris of the United States? God forbid!

#### BUT THE PRINCIPLES OF HUMAN NATURE

are everywhere the same, and if we adhere to the regulation system as now begun, its strictness and severity of application must be continually increased, and all the bad results developed in European cities will be experienced here. Perhaps, and not improbably, they would be aggravated and intensified, for the whole system is singularly at variance with all American ideas, and will be more and more earnestly resisted or evaded every day. How it has happened that American women have submitted to it at all I do not understand. Still less can I understand how American men, who are known the world over for their habitual and chivalric regard for women, should quietly have looked on. It is certainly a new thing in America that women should be deliberately held and treated as the instruments of man's pleasure, as if she were a lower grade of creation. The whole tendency of American thought has been to elevate women, both in education and social regard; but here, all at once, we open a French chapter of history, and say, "Men's self-indulgence *will and may* continue unrestrained, and women, as the weaker and more helpless party, must be subjected, 'for protection of the innocent,' to degrading sanitary laws." I am persuaded that the whole system has in it an inherent injustice that Americans cannot

long endure. I do not believe that it would stand in the courts one moment, if properly tried. It will have but short life in England, for the middle classes are there getting thoroughly aroused against it, even as an army act; but its life will be still shorter here. I doubt if any American Legislature has the constitutional right to confer such power over the person and freedom and domiciliary rights of citizens as is now exercised over unfortunate women in St. Louis, without trial by court or jury, even for the worst crimes. But when we look at the partial application of the rule, which can be defended, if at all, only as a sanitary measure, and is therefore, by the nature of the case, equally applicable to both sexes, and can be effectual only when so applied, the whole thing stands, in our American eyes, as a gross absurdity and a flagrant outrage. It is a legal absurdity and a moral outrage. If it continues long, we shall acknowledge ourselves utterly ignorant of the spirit of the American character and institutions. If it is to continue as a sanitary measure, then must it be extended, by the necessity of common law and common sense, to men and women equally. If that cannot be done, and the self-respect and sense of liberty in men forbid it, then it must be repealed, with indignation—and the sooner the better.

We have said almost nothing of the great moral questions involved, nor even of the bad sanitary influence which a lowered tone of public morals would necessarily exert; for this, although by far the most important view to be taken, has not come within the present scope of discussion.

Perhaps, if the privilege is granted to me by the generous editors of the *GLOBE*, I may say something upon that part of the subject at some future time. If so, the moral question will be found to bear in three directions: 1. The general public interest; 2. The agents and officials employed; and, 3. The large class of "unfortunate women" themselves.

# THE MORAL VIEW.

BY WM. G. ELIOT.

---

## No. III.

The practical discussion of the Social-Evil system of St. Louis required, first of all, an answer to the vulgar question, "Does it pay?" Does it accomplish the desired end of lessening prostitution and the physical evils resulting from it? If statistics can be relied upon at all, if the experience, under a great variety of circumstances, of all the communities to whose records we have access is of any use, the negative has been clearly and fully proved. We could easily, from the documents before us, quadruple the facts already given, but it would only be a wearisome repetition of the same thing; for it is an absolute truth, that there is no instance on record where the "regulation" plan has worked well. Not one. Invariably it is the same verdict of failure, and on the lowest ground of practical usefulness, as a sanitary measure, it stands condemned.

But there may still be some who think it worth one trial more on our American soil, with the vague hope that greater wisdom of management may secure better results. We have, therefore, something further to say of the principles involved, both moral and social, by which, as we think, the case ought to be settled independently of all statistics, and which place its settlement upon a higher basis of thought. If we have deferred this part of the discussion to the last, it is because we live in an eminently practical community, and the bold assertion of the usefulness of the system, as heretofore tried, needed to be first disproved.

We now proceed to inquire what is

### THE MORAL BEARING

of the St. Louis Regulation System?

Every unjust law is a demoralizing influence in society; and this, not only because of its inherent wrong, but because unjust laws are sure to be unjustly administered. Nor can the effect of such injustice be limited to those interests alone which the law was intended to reach; but it may generally be traced in many directions, and goes to unexpected

depths. Especially does this hold good in those departments of life where the laws directly affect our social and domestic interests, and where the injustice done is a matter of daily personal concern.

This Social-Evil system, for example, was established purely as a measure of health by those whose intention was undoubtedly good. But in their zeal for health and prevention of disease, they have not only made the most unjust discrimination between equal offenders, but have given legal sanction to that which the law condemns as a crime, and the conscience of the community denounces as a sin. The existence of such a system and its daily reported operation is an element of serious harm. But when we look more closely at its direct and indirect influence, we shall find that it invades, or threatens to invade, the sacred precincts of every fireside and home.

The worst accusation we can bring against certain modern half-crazed reformers is, that they throw contempt on the marriage relation, and thereby undermine the foundations of civilized society. No worse charge could be brought against any man or woman than that, nor should any "progressive legislation" or pretended reform, against which it justly stands, be, for a single hour, countenanced or endured.

But what else is our unhappy St. Louis system doing, not as its accidental or incidental result, but by its normal action, manifest from the first, and which must increase continually so long as the law is in force? A part of its intended, "benign effects" is to make it safe for married men, who have promised at the altar faithfulness to their wives, to violate that vow, whenever passion prompts them; and it does this under a pretense so insulting to the wife—"for the protection of the innocent"—that there are few women who would not reject with indignation all protection so obtained. The law steps in to help him keep his guilty secret, almost as if it involved no moral wrong.

Still further, by thus bringing profligacy within

the recognized limits of law, and, by providing for the (supposed) safety of its indulgence, it establishes a legalized form of concubinage, which all may adopt who choose. Under the American construction of the marriage contract, it is itself only a civil obligation, the legal validity of which does not depend at all upon religious or moral sanction; and our present law regulating profligacy comes just as near as the nature of the case admits to giving the same legal recognition to the brothel as to the home. Could the hated and hateful doctrines of "free-love" strike a deadlier blow against social and domestic peace? We ask all good men and women, all lovers of purity and virtue, all who believe in the divine institution of the Christian home, to think of these things.

The relation of the sexes to each other, in the human family, surely has something in it higher and better than mere animal passion, which is in common with the brutes. But under the profligacy law nothing else is considered. It is regarded as a mere physical necessity, which has its regular demand and must have its regular supply. Upon this point, also, let me say a few words, although it is one not easily handled without a degree of plainness painful to the sensitive mind; but the responsibility of this whole discussion and of the distressing openness with which the most delicate subjects are compelled to be treated, both in conversation and the public prints, rests, not upon the opponents of the system, but upon those who have forced it upon us, in violation of all the traditions of our fathers, and in seeming contempt of all the precepts of the Christian faith. Under such circumstances we must speak, even at the risk of calling things by their right names.

It is boldly asserted as the axiomatic truth of this school of moral philosophy, that prostitution of women is a providential necessity, because of the physiological sensual necessities of men. Now, that vice will always exist, and that unbridled passion in man and woman will always, to some extent, continue, may be true. But passion is a thing which grows by what it feeds on, and is to be controlled, if at all, not by providing for its unlimited indulgence, but by the power of personal moral constraint. Teach the boy and young man that passion must have its way, that self-indulgence is his right and normal condition, and that, therefore, suitable provision if made by the parental or maternal tenderness of the law, for the satisfaction of desires which he is not expected to control, and what must be the inevitable result, except an increasing and insatiable sensuality of mind? For it is *in the mind*, more than in the body, that the difficulty consists. The corrupt mind debases the body and keeps its vile passions always awake, and holds its own corruption even when the strength of

the body fails. Let the young learn the needful lesson of self-control, and something, at least, will have been done towards keeping them from the pollutions of sin. But neglect this, and then expect to regulate the degree of self-indulgence, while you do all you can to remove its opprobrium and to offer an impunity, which may be promised but can never be secured, and there is absolutely no limit to the morbid physical demand for which you undertake to provide. Then indeed not only is prostitution a necessity, but no man can predict the degree to which it will soon abound! But in any proper sense of the words, and in a reasonable view of civilized society, we deny this profligate axiom of social wrong. Sin may always continue to exist and passion to be indulged, but there is no providential, nor physical, nor social necessity for either men or women to yield themselves up to a life of prostitution, and it should be the earnest, continued effort of all Christian society to save them from so terrible a fate. Much less is there a necessity or reasonable excuse for setting apart, under the sanction of law, a class of women who are to be permanently held as the instruments of the legalized lust of habitually profligate men.

The entire view of human society, from which the "regulation" laws proceed is materialistic, low and sensual, and altogether inconsistent with the maintenance of social virtue and truth. Its best illustrations may be found in the worst periods of French history, when the extent of social corruption was so great as almost to pass the bounds of belief, and which, at this day, no decent civilized community would dare to emulate. But it may be important here to say, for truth and fairness require it, that it was not Catholic France which gave birth to the system under which Paris now suffers, but revolutionary and infidel France, in its worst days of disorder and misrule. Nor has the system ever received the sanction of the French National Legislature or Government, in any way, but is merely a municipal ordinance, resting upon no sufficient basis of law, as Duchatelet admits, wherever it is in vogue. Taking its root in the fertile but corrupt soil of 1791, it has grown up by the neglect and sufferance of the people, rather than by their consent, just as it might do here, until it has interwoven itself into all social usages, with results such as we have seen. Neither the church, nor the religious portion of the community, ever sustained it nor do they sustain it now. But, it may be asked, why is it, then, permitted to continue? We answer, partly because social abuses once established are tenacious of their hold, and hard to be overthrown; and partly, for precisely the same reasons by which its beginning and continuance here in St. Louis are explained. If the better and more intelligent classes of this city had had a fair opportunity

to express their opinions, the law would never have been passed. If they would now express themselves with distinctness, in any intelligible way, exactly as they feel, the law would be repealed in a month's time. The whole mass of women, who have a preponderating influence, if they would use it, as they well know how when they are so disposed, are almost without exception against the law. There is probably not a clergyman, Protestant or Catholic, who does not, in his heart, earnestly condemn it. The vast majority, as I believe, of the moral and religious part of the community, are distinctly upon the same side. Yet the law continues, and its advocates say, is in no danger of being disturbed. The continued silence or moral cowardice of its opponents constitutes its chief strength. Whether Christian men and women can escape responsibility by silence and inaction is another thing.

We are ready enough to denounce Utah, which is at a distance from us, and the polygamous system of the Mormon Church, nor do I fall behind any one in that condemnation, for I have seen it in its best, or rather, morally speaking, its worst days. We condemn it as degrading to women and giving unbridled license to men. But how much better, in either respect, is our present system of registered brothels and legalized prostitution? Under both systems it seems to be assumed that women are made for the use of men, and may rightfully be held as the instruments of man's pleasure; but as a question of social morality, whether we look to the male or female profligates interested in its continuance, we can claim no great improvement upon the institutions of Brigham Young.

The St. Louis system should further be opposed, not only on moral, but on broad constitutional grounds, as coming under the head of class-legislation, and as discriminating in favor of the strong and against the weak. We have already briefly referred to this point, but it may, perhaps, need to be set in a stronger light. In some departments of legislation laws may properly be enacted which bear unequally upon men and women, for their political status is, in many respects, different. But so far as their rights are in common, as American citizens, they have, under the spirit of American law, an unquestionable claim to the same treatment, to the same protection and defense. Among such rights are personal liberty, the protection from personal violence, the right of trial by jury, and of conviction for crime before its punishment. These and other personal rights are sacred and inviolable, and are the same to man and woman, being entirely irrespective of sex.

It may, however, be said that sanitary laws, having respect to the general health and for the

needful protection of life, as permitted to transcend the ordinary bounds, and, under the necessity of the case, may invade the privacy of the domicile, to restrict the liberty of the citizen, and subject him sometimes to severe constraint. Granted; although, let me here say in passing, that such extraordinary powers should be used with great care, and intrusted only to well-instructed and responsible men; for not a little tyranny is sometimes exercised under the shelter of Boards of Health. But whoever heard of sanitary laws to prevent the spread of an epidemic or contagious disease which are not applicable to all alike! If both sexes are equally liable to receive and carry infection and spread disease, is it not mere tyranny to discriminate between them? Can any proper interpretation of law and justice sanction that? Yet, in this case, men, who are the more dangerous party as to society at large, are permitted to go free, and women are subjected to personal outrage, to fines and penalties, to a restriction of liberty, to compulsory imprisonment in hospital, to special police supervision, and, in general, to a course of treatment such as no other class of citizens, however depraved, are compelled to endure.

It may seem strange that we should vindicate the legal rights of so depraved a class as that of abandoned women; but I hope the time will never come when we are not ready to stand up, even for the lowest and most depraved, when they are unjustly oppressed. The vileness, neither of men nor women, justifies our trampling upon them, nor depriving them of any protection which the law rightfully confers. Nor can we see the manliness or justice of trying sanitary experiments upon women, under which they suffer and for which they are compelled to pay, while men, equally culpable, and oftentimes more diseased, can quietly assert the freedom of American citizens and go on in their unimpeded course.

It is contended that the moral effect of the law is good upon the unfortunate women themselves, by deterring some from a life of shame, and by rescuing others from its continuance. Let us look then for a moment at what may be considered, under the light of experience, as the normal and natural working of the system. Few women fall suddenly from virtue to the degradation of vice. Generally the first step is taken through betrayal, or want of self-control, or a passion for pleasure and expensive dress, or from idleness or false shame, which keeps them from honest work. The first cause named, we fear, is not the most common one, for the fault between the offenders is equally divided, more generally than most persons suppose. But at the time when the first steps are taken, very few women have the thought of life-long iniquity in view. It may be months and years before they come to it, if

they ever do, and as long as open disgrace has not overtaken them there is hope for their reform. But if they get so far down as to come under the registration notice, although they may then try to avoid it by falsehood and evasion, the chance for their reformation is small. Once actually registered and subjected to the medical examiner's inspection, the possibility of improvement or escape is well nigh gone.

To use the language of Dr. John Chapman, of London, in his able exposition of "Governmental Experiments in Controlling Prostitution," as exemplified in Paris and elsewhere, "an unregistered woman who has fallen has it in her power to recover herself, if she avoids public notice, as she is not unlikely to do; but the difficulty after registration is increased a thousand fold; and hence the prostitute population, continually increased by the accession of new victims, and not lessened by the withdrawal of an equal number, tends to become greater and greater where the system of toleration prevails." Duchatelet, of Paris, the author of an exhaustive work on the same subject, confirms this testimony with most painful details. Even Mr. Acton, of England, who was chiefly instrumental in the first trial of the same experiment in that country, says, in application to the Parisian, "Maisons toleries"—"Let a girl once enter these houses, and she may bid adieu to heaven, to liberty, to honor, and to the world! I would write over the door of such a house those celebrated words of the Italian poet, 'All hope abandon, ye who enter here!'"

That is the testimony where "regulation" has done its complete work. In its early establishment some better results might probably appear, but in the nature of things, a system, the main purpose of which is to keep its subjects fit to "ply their vocation," can exercise but little influence towards their reform. The two objects are in fact inconsistent with each other, and would require different theories and different modes of action from beginning to end. The same voice can scarcely say, "Go and sin no more;" and "Go, you are now well—return to your lawful trade."

As a matter of fact, where no restrictions of law stand in the way, a very considerable part of those who fall from virtue, and even of those who may be called prostitutes, escape from the shameful life, and find their way to some decent employment. According to the best statistical information, which is often no better than the calculations of sensible men, founded upon observation, not less than one-fourth, in the city of New York, are annually "disappearing" from this unfortunate class, of whom no actual trace can be found. Dr. Sanger, in his book of remarkable assumptions, quietly takes for granted that they perish of want and dis-

ease. But the more accurate police and sanitary statistics of London and Paris demonstrate that a *very small part* of those who disappear can be accounted for in that way. By far the greater part find some avenue of escape to other occupations and places where having learned the hardships of sin, they seek to lead a better life. I have known many such cases myself, and if christian men and women were only more fully guided by christian principles, such avenues of escape would be everywhere more widely opened. But every plan of registration and inspection, exactly in proportion to the faithfulness of its application, must necessarily bar the way.

Nor would it be possible, except in rare cases, even if reform were made a part of the plan, to find those well fitted to act as reformers, who would accept official positions under the regulation law. We speak in no spirit of complaint, and with no charges expressed or implied against those who are now engaged, for we feel assured that many of them are actuated by a sincere desire to do good. But we speak from the recorded experience of other cities, and from the dictates of common sense when we say that the tendency of every "regulation" system must be to fall into doubtful hands. "On this subject," says that admirable woman, Mrs. Josephine Butler, whose labors, together with those of Florence Nightingale, have been so successful in opposing the English Contagious Diseases act, "the testimony of Duchatelet is fearfully instructive, wherein he describes in pages which it is almost impossible to read the demoralization of the medical staff employed under this system. Respectable men relinquished the office one by one in disgust, and the work was left to medical students of inferior grade and reckless character," with results too painful to describe. Such must be the natural tendency, and, however successfully it may be resisted for a time, it would be here, as elsewhere, the natural result. It will be more and more difficult to induce men of successful practice and high moral worth to take the responsible duties which the system requires.

At whatever point we look, the regulation system whether tried upon practical or moral grounds, stands condemned. It is wrong in principle and pernicious in practice. It increases and multiplies the evils which it seeks to avoid, and creates new evils of its own.

We come back again, therefore, after the most patient and impartial examination of the whole subject that we are capable of giving, to the same conclusion in which Lecour, Chief of the "Bureau des Moeurs" in Paris, declares himself to rest. "The evil is a moral and social one. It must be overcome by moral, not by legislative means." The battle must be fought on Christian principles, if the victory is ever to be gained.

pointed out that the decrease in disease in the army prior to the introduction of the Acts was in consequence of the improved morality of the army, mainly through Lord Herbert's efforts, and explained how the disease rose again as soon as the Acts were passed. After quoting from the report of the Royal Commission, Dr. Nevins said he had pointed out to the Government in every way he could, and also in a journal circulating throughout the medical profession, that the reduction of the number of men in the army had nothing to do with the reduction of disease. When the Act was passed there was on the average one case of disease for every recruit. The army was reduced by 4000 men, but disease fell to a much larger extent. Later on the army was increased, but disease still continued to fall. The army was again reduced; but the amount of disease rose. Afterwards the army was increased to a degree never before exceeded, and an immense number of recruits were introduced, and although recruits were said to be the origin of disease, yet the proportion of the disease in the army in that year had never before been so small. Yet Mr. Taylor had said that he (Dr. Nevins) had stated in the *British Medical Journal* that the reduction in disease was owing to the reduction of the army, and he would call upon him (Mr. Taylor) to prove the assertion. After mentioning those things he proposed to leave all further allusion to personalities and to confine himself to the discussion of the very important question about which they had met. He would first endeavour to show them the degrading effects which the periodical examinations had upon the women. One case came under his own notice last autumn, and was authenticated by a large number of respectable people in Chatham. That case would show what the effect of the Acts were, and what might be expected if they were introduced to Sheffield. A young girl in Chatham lived with her mother and kept company with one soldier. An inspector called at the house one day and told her she would have to go up for examination. She refused, and he called again telling her that if she did not go she would be sent to prison. After much persuasion, in which her mother joined, she was induced to go, but then she refused to submit to the examination, and was confined to bed for four days on bread and tea as a "refractory." At the end of four days she submitted, and she was then told that she was a pure girl, and might go. She received 5s., which she considered as hush money, and went home. A great change had, however, come over that girl, and her mother said she had been demoralised by the conversation of the girls who were in the hospital with her. Speaking of the examinations, he said he should shudder to describe them to a public meeting, but he would do so, if desired, to any town clerk, head constable, clergymen or ministers, or heads of trades or friendly societies. He then referred to the report of the Royal Commission, and quoted largely the opinions of persons in the subjected districts. All the evidence went to show that the examinations had a tendency to degrade the women and to make them feel that their trade was recognised by the Government. They were called the Queen's women, and some of them actually pushed the soldiers off the causeway, saying that they were quite as much the Queen's servants. He then quoted from a speech by a clergyman of Maidstone, who said that in that town it was not safe for a young man and woman to walk together. Then the question arose: How were the women got at? The inspectors went to the soldiers, sailors, and brothel keepers asking them to "peach" upon the girls. He had been born and bred a Yorkshireman, and he could not describe the scorn that he felt for the man who would pay a woman to share with him in sin, and then go the policeman and say, "Take that woman up, and send her to prison, for she has given me disease." Men so often betrayed girls in this way, that the inspectors were obliged to be exceedingly cautious in taking such statements, because a man sometimes gave false evidence in order to vent his spleen upon a girl who had not given him pleasure. Within the last few weeks a Liverpool policeman had been dismissed from the force for having charged a woman with soliciting in the streets without the slightest foundation for such a charge. She was a married woman, and he tried to take improper liberties with her. She rejected him with

scorn, upon which he took her to the police station, and charged her with having solicited in the street. But the Acts were not in operation at Liverpool, and therefore the woman could bring this policeman before the magistrates and obtain justice. But, if Liverpool had been under the Acts, the policeman would simply have had to make this charge before the magistrates, and, without the production of any evidence, the woman might have been branded as a common prostitute. Evidence had been given before the Royal Commission that the police under the Acts in England had an advantage over the police in France. The French policeman was obliged to bring some evidence to confirm his statements, but the police in England were not obliged to bring any evidence. Therefore the English policeman could get a woman into his hands in a way that the French police could not, because of the confirmatory evidence that was required. The next point he had to deal with was the alleged improvement that had taken place in consequence of the reported great reduction in the number of brothels and prostitutes, through the operation of the Acts. Captain Harris had reported to the Government, year after year, that there were so many hundred prostitutes and brothels fewer than there used to be in the "protected" towns, the towns in which the Acts were in operation; therefore it had been said that the Acts were working a great moral reformation. The witnesses before the Royal Commission had been asked over and over again, "Is not this reduction in the number of brothels and prostitutes owing to the action of the borough police?" Because there was not a single word in the Acts that enabled a policeman under the Acts to interfere with a woman, however disorderly and indecent in her conduct, provided she went up regularly for examination; whereas, under the Police Acts, the common police had power to suppress brothels and disorderly houses. This was why the question was put to the witnesses, but they had said "No." This was an important question, and with a view of getting accurate information, he had written to the chief constables of all the large sea-ports in England, Scotland, and Ireland, asking them for a return of the number of brothels and prostitutes in 1866, when the Act was passed, and in 1874. He had returns from 21 of the largest towns, with the chief constables' names attached. The population in the towns under the Acts was 600,000, while that of the towns from which he had returns was over 3,000,000. He had prepared a diagram, based upon those returns, showing the reduction claimed by the police in the number of brothels as the result of the Acts, in the towns where the latter were in force, from 1866 to 1874. The diagram also showed the reduction in the number of those houses in towns which had not been under the Acts. The difference between the two results was only 3 in 100. He then referred to an extraordinary report in which Mr. Anniss, one of the special police officers under the Acts at Devonport claimed to have done wonders as compared with 16 detectives elsewhere; the reduction which he alleged to have effected being from 227 to 2, while the other 16 Inspectors put together had only reduced the number from 151 to 49. At the end of the Royal Commission report a protest was signed by Messrs. P. Rylands, A. J. Mundella, R. Applegarth, and Holmes Coote, in which they declared: "We are of opinion that reliance cannot be placed upon the statement that the number of prostitutes in Devonport has been reduced since 1864 from 2621 to 557; as this statement is contradicted by the evidence of the local police and other witnesses." As to whether more prostitutes were reclaimed now than formerly, the Royal Commission was very guarded in their language. The evidence before them was that many of those cases were entered as reclaimed many times one after another. Anniss admitted that not more than "60 or 70 in the whole" had been put down as reclaimed two or three times over." It was very difficult to say anything positive as to the number of the reclaimed, as evidence on this point was not easily obtained. He then proceeded to deal with the objections to the Acts on constitutional grounds. If any poor creature was taken up for picking a pocket of a handkerchief she was told by the police that she was not to say anything which would criminate herself, and the police were strictly forbidden from asking

her if she did steal it. But these Acts tried to force self-crimination. As soon as a woman agreed to go before a doctor she was immediately put upon the register as a common prostitute. She was urged by the police to accuse herself of being a common prostitute, whether she was one or not, by signing that voluntary statement. (Cries of "Shame.") It had been stated that there had been no cases of excess of duty brought forward. He proceeded to account for that statement, and to show that there had been such cases of excess of duty. Turning to the health results of the Acts, he said when they were passed no one pretended that their object was to promote morality; but to reduce contagious diseases in certain army and navy stations.

Taking first the army:—The army report for 1873 and the navy report for 1874 have just been published, and the following is the general result of the Acts after 8 years' experience in the navy and 7 years' in the army:—In both the army and navy, venereal diseases of all kinds fell off considerably from 1860 to 1864, before any Act at all was in existence; the fall in the most serious form of disease was more rapid in the army during that period than it has ever been since, and the improvement has never been so small as during the years in which the Acts have been in full operation. Constitutional disease began to increase in the army in 1866, when the Acts came into operation, and gonorrhœa has been higher in the stations under the Acts until the year 1873.

In the home stations in the navy, the more serious form of disease improved much more rapidly before the Act of 1866 was passed than it has done since, and gonorrhœa has more than doubled since 1866. And in the Mediterranean station the more serious form of disease has nearly doubled, and gonorrhœa has nearly trebled since 1866.

The Royal Commission reported in 1870 (clause 37)—*There is no distinct evidence that any diminution of disease*

*amongst the men of the army and navy which may have taken place is attributable to a diminution of diseases contingent upon the system of periodical examinations amongst the women with whom they consort. And subsequent experience confirms this.*

Every figure in the following diagrams and tables is taken from the Army and Navy Reports, as shown by the references.

The following diagrams illustrate the differences in the amounts of the various forms of venereal disease in the home and Mediterranean stations in the navy during the years 1860 to 1874. The first diagram relates to "syphilis," a term which comprises two forms of disease, which differ widely in their importance. The first is called "primary," or "primary venereal sores," and is of no consequence beyond producing temporary inconvenience. The second is called "secondary," and is the form which enters into the constitution, and affects the patient himself at subsequent periods of his life, and sometimes descends to his children. The two forms were not separated in the Navy Report before 1866, and they are represented together in the first diagram. After 1866 they were separated in the Navy Reports, and the second diagram shows the different amounts of primary disease in the upper line, and of secondary or constitutional disease in the lower line. The dotted line in the first diagram shows the amount of gonorrhœa—the most painful, but on the whole the least serious form of disease, and one which does not descend to offspring. The figures relating to syphilis in the body of the diagrams show the amount each year, and are taken from the table at page 18 in the Navy Report for 1874, just published. The figures relating to gonorrhœa are also taken from the Navy Report, but each year has to be found separately in the table of diseases for the home station—generally about page 25 in each yearly Navy Report.

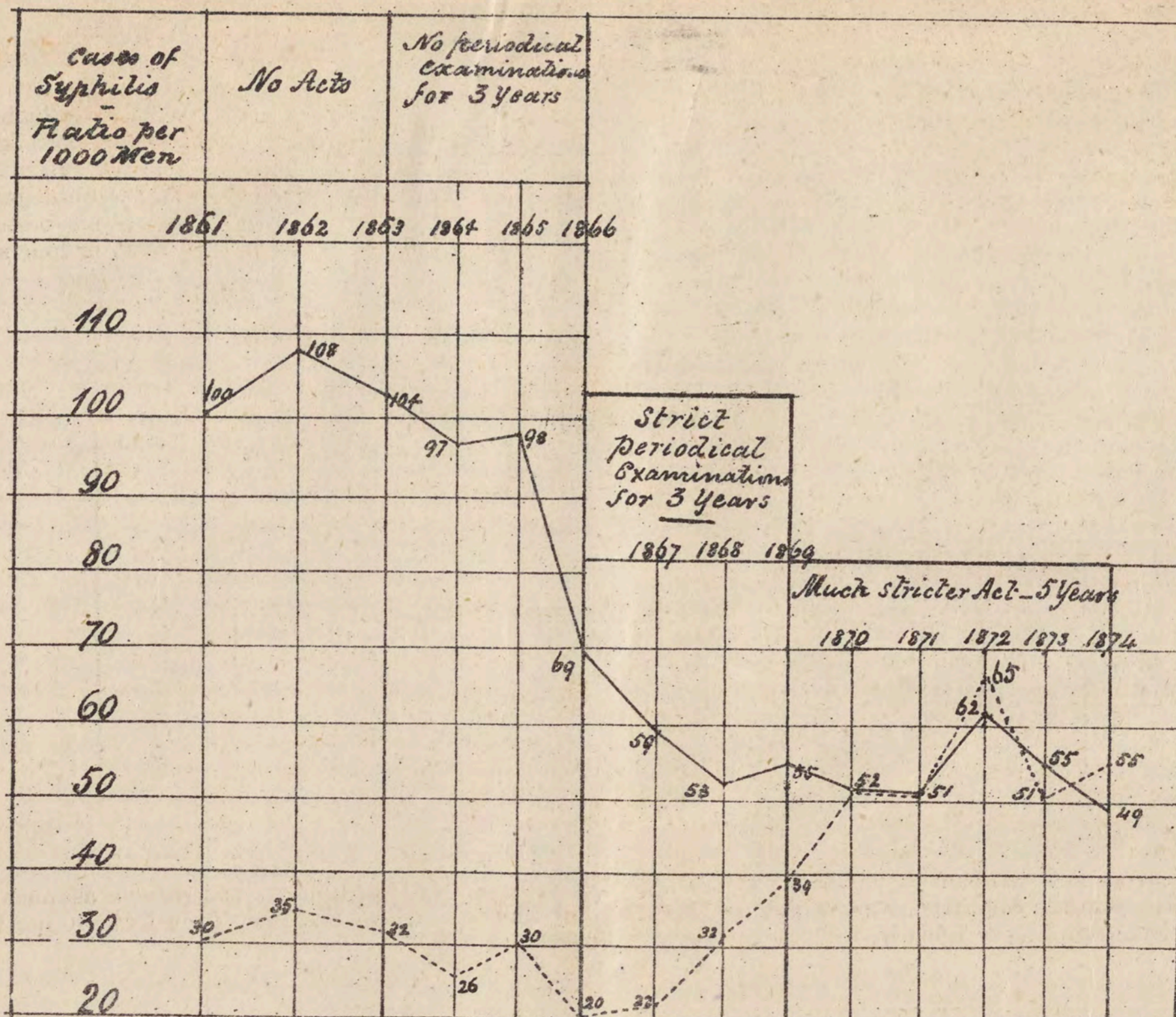
## A

## HOME STATION.—NAVY.

Amount of the various forms of Venereal Disease in the Home Station in the Navy from 1861 to 1874.

Syphilis, "Primary" and "Secondary" combined.

Gonorrhœa is shewn by the dotted line.



From this diagram A it is evident that syphilis rose and fell again yearly before any Act was in existence. That it fell very largely ( $\frac{1}{3}$ ) yearly during 3 years without any periodical examinations. That it fell but little ( $\frac{1}{18}$ ) yearly during 3 years with periodical examinations, and that it scarcely fell at all during 5 years of the very strictest possible Acts. And that gonorrhœa fell until the very strict Act was in force, and then rose to nearly 3 times the amount.

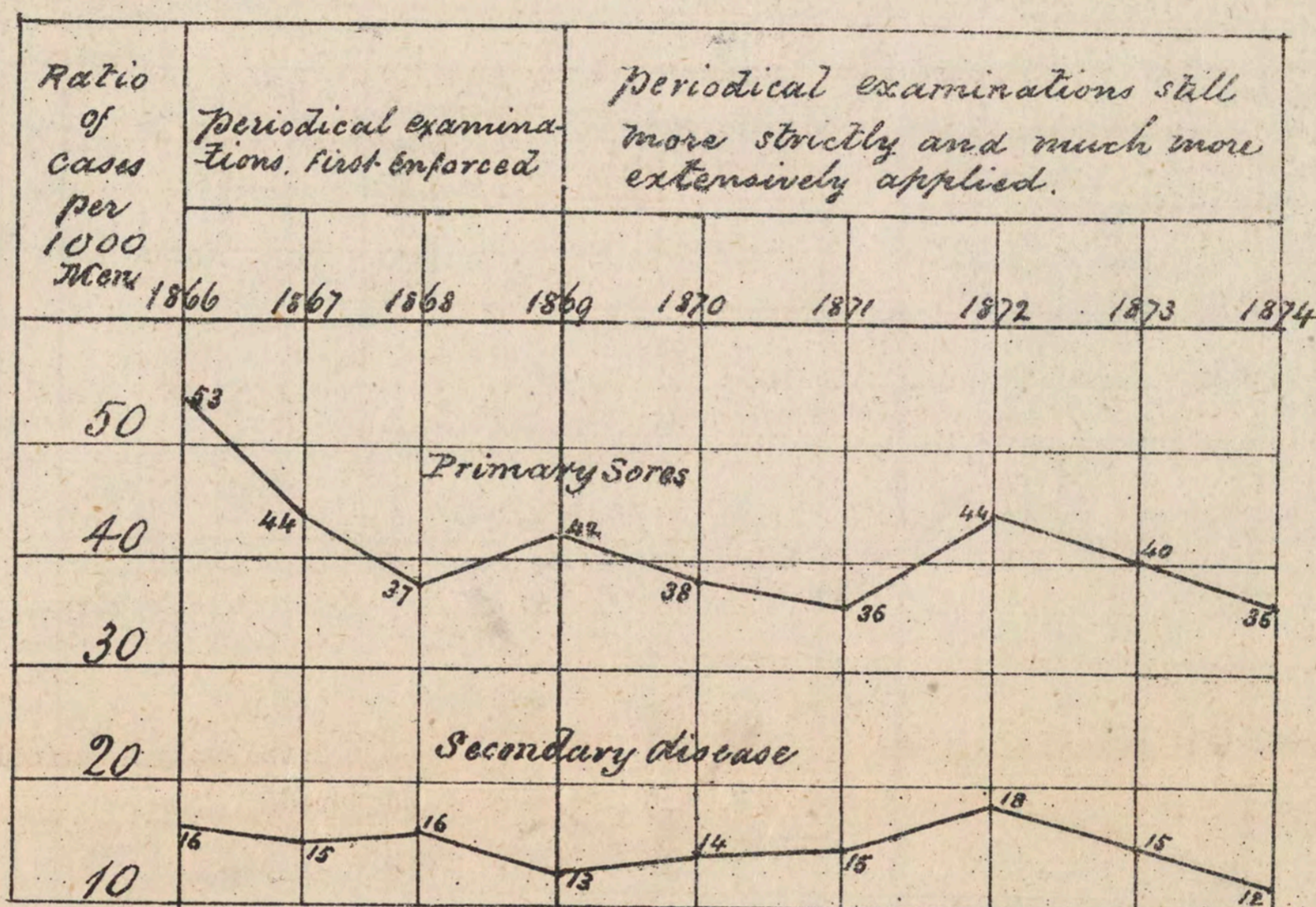
This table most fully confirms the Report of the Royal Commission, that "There is no distinct evidence that any diminution of disease among the men of the Army and Navy

which may have taken place is attributable to a diminution of disease contingent upon the system of periodical examination among the women with whom they have consorted"—clause 37—for the immense fall in disease shewn in the diagram had taken place before the periodical examinations had been commenced.

In the following diagram B "primary and "secondary" (or the constitutional form) are separated. This diagram also is formed from the table in the Navy Report for 1874, page 18. It only shews them separately from 1866, as they were always entered together previous to that year :

## B

HOME STATION.—NAVY.—PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SYPHILIS.

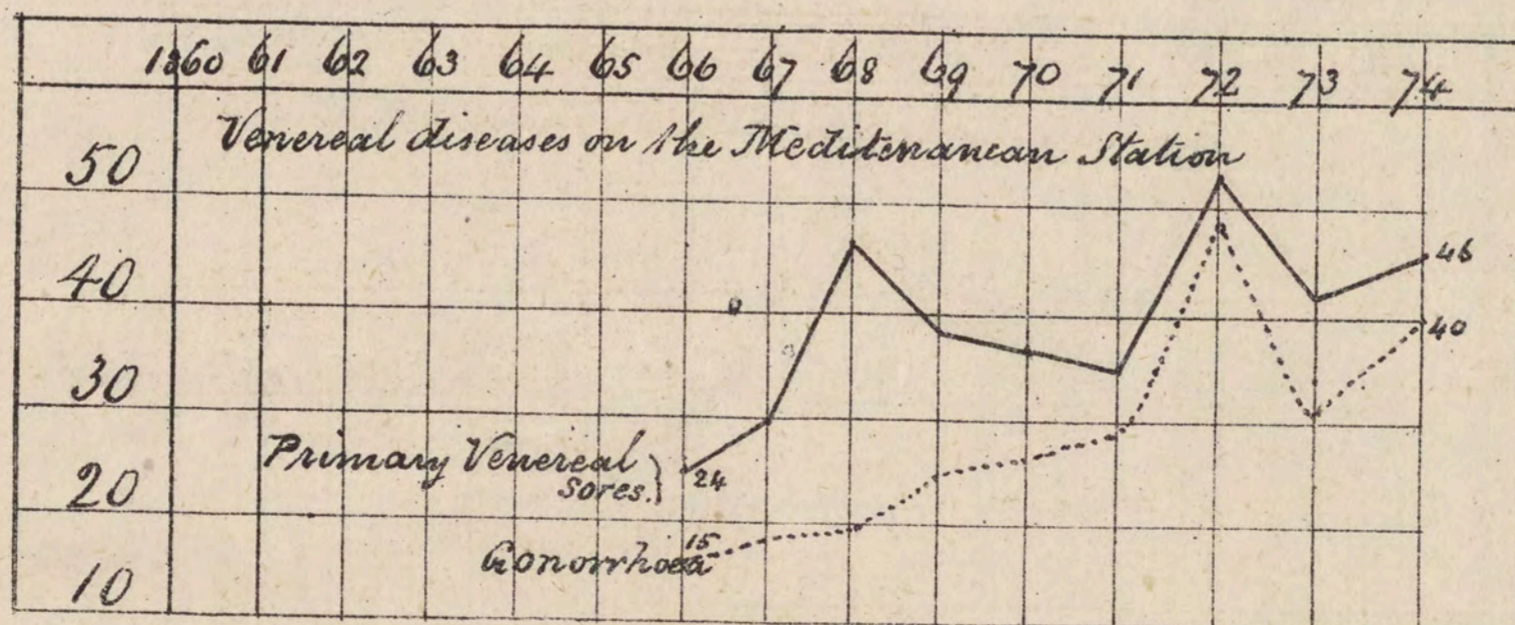


From this table it appears that primary sores, which of themselves are of little consequence, fell from 53 to 42, or 11 per 1000, under the less strict Act in three years, and only fell from 42 to 36, or 6 per 1000, under the much more extensive Act in five years; and that the important constitutional form of disease has scarcely fallen at all, being only 1 in a thousand

lower in 1874 than in 1869, and having been higher in 1872 than at any previous period. It has long been known that the truly important sores are the most difficult of detection, and are liable to be overlooked on the most careful examination, much more so then when the average time bestowed upon each examination is not more than three or four minutes.

## C.

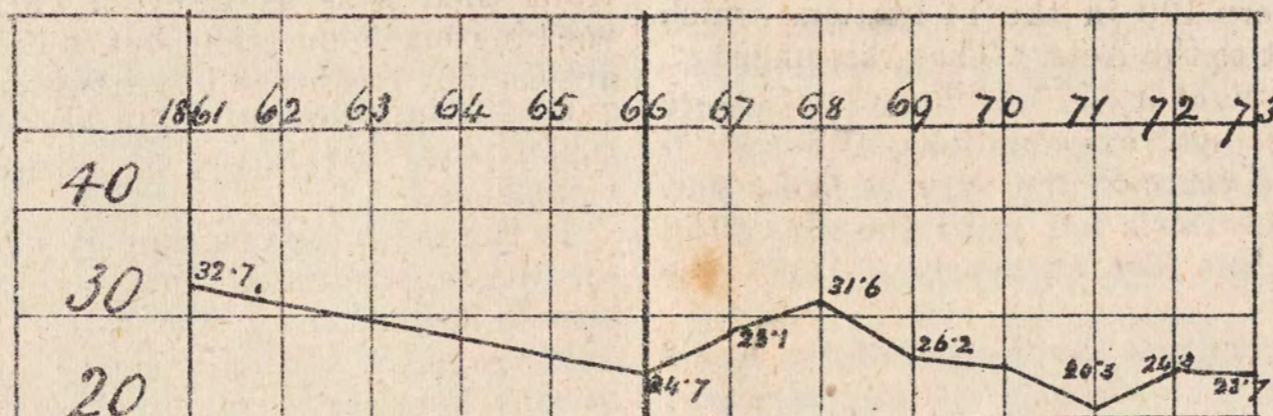
MEDITERRANEAN STATION NAVY.



From this diagram it is evident that primary syphilis has risen in the Navy in the Mediterranean, which is a highly protected station, from 24 per 1,000 in 1866, when the Act

was passed, to 46 per 1,000, or nearly twice as much in 1874; and that gonorrhœa has risen from 15 to 40 per 1,000; or nearly trebled.

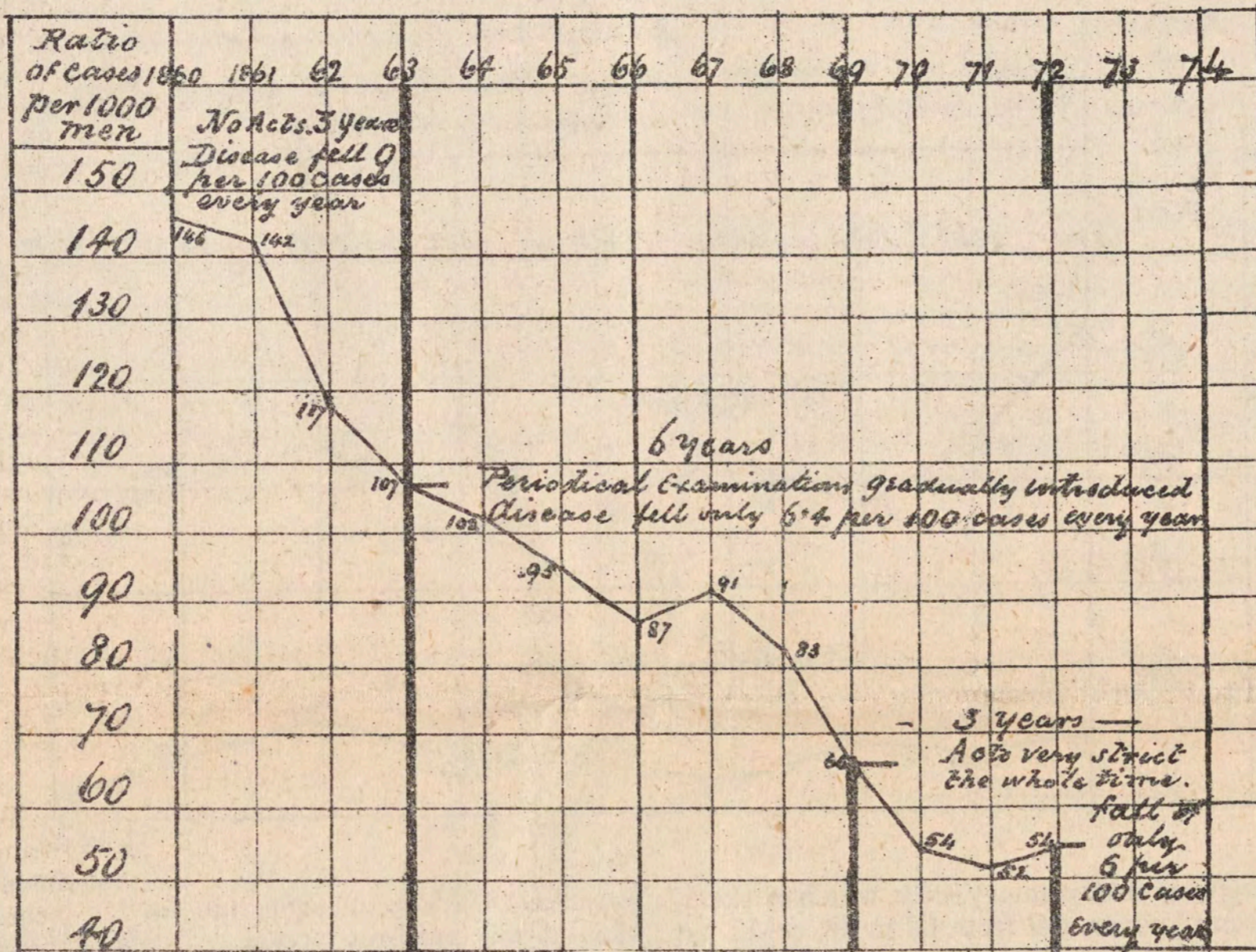
## D.—ARMY.—“Secondary” or Constitutional Syphilis in the whole Army from 1861 to 1873.



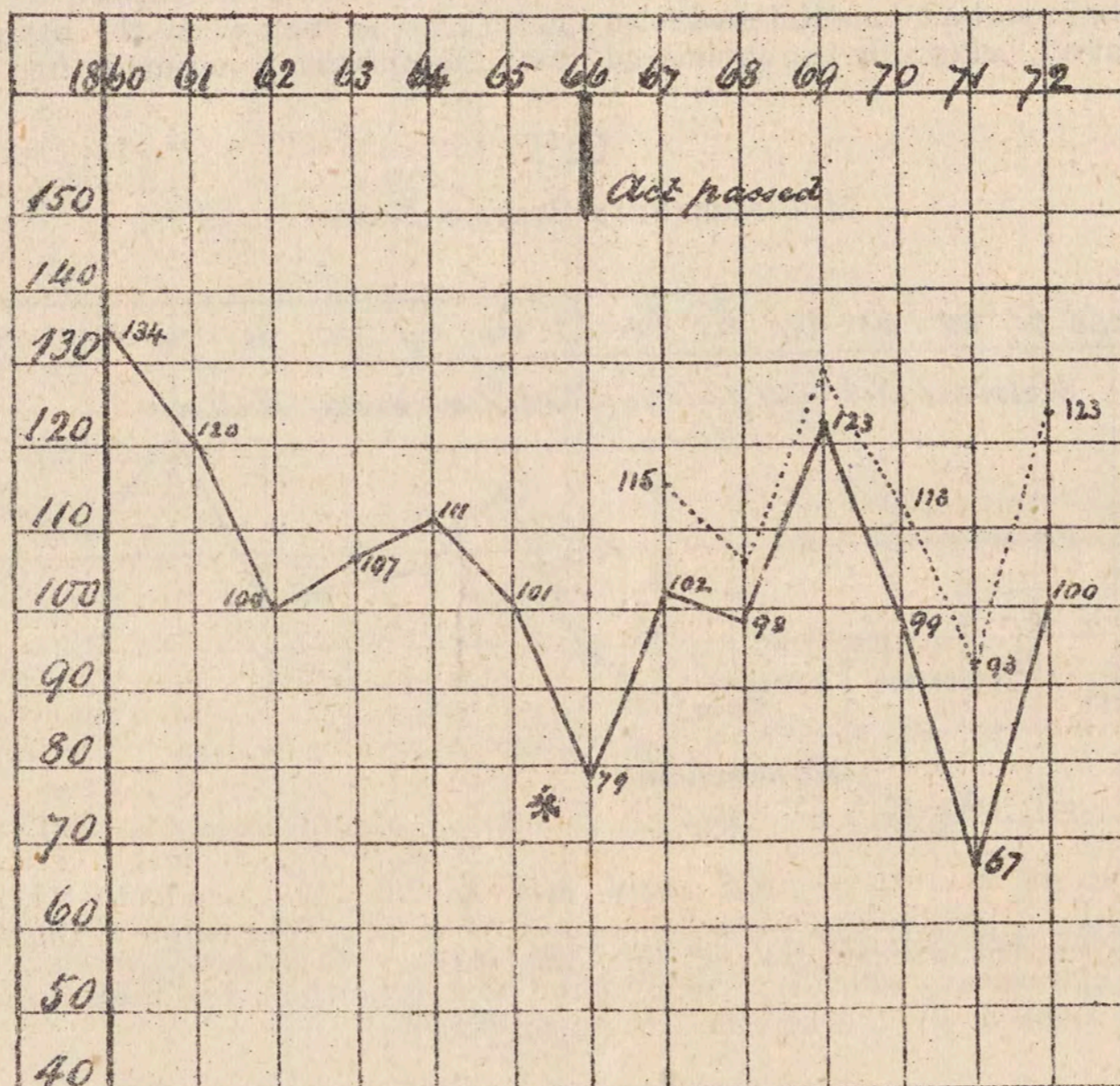
From this diagram it appears that between 1861 and 1866, the year when periodical examinations commenced, secondary disease fell from 32.7 per 1,000 to 24.7, after which it began to rise, and the average of the whole six years since the Act is higher than it was when the Act was passed. The

diagram makes no distinction between the subjected and unsubjected towns, because the Army Returns only give the amount of secondary disease in the army as a whole, instead of dividing it into subjected and unsubjected stations.

## E.—ARMY.—PRIMARY VENEREAL SORES. Subjected Stations.—Average about 60,000 Men



## F.—ARMY.—PRIMARY VENEREAL SORES. Unsubjected Stations.—Average about 20,000 Men.



Plan return to L.D.

# THIRD SPECIAL NUMBER OF THE SHIELD.

*Complete Report of the Interesting Proceedings in Bradford.*

No. 219.—Vol. V.] *London* NOVEMBER 25, 1874.

[NEW SERIES, No. 10.]

*"The busy world pays attention only to those who loudly complain; and accords that attention in exact proportion to the loudness and persistency of the complaint."*—SIR ARTHUR HELPS.

## Contents.

THE NORTHERN COUNTIES' LEAGUE FOR THE REPEAL  
OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS.—SPECIAL  
REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS AT THE ANNUAL  
CONFERENCE, AND PUBLIC MEETING HELD IN  
BRADFORD, NOVEMBER 11, 1874 ... .. 241

## The Shield.

NOVEMBER, 25 1874.

### THE NORTHERN COUNTIES' LEAGUE FOR THE REPEAL OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS.

SPECIAL REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS AT THE  
ANNUAL CONFERENCE, AND PUBLIC MEETING  
HELD IN BRADFORD, NOVEMBER 11, 1874.

The Annual Conference of the Northern Counties' League, for the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, was held in the saloon of St. George's Hall, Bradford. The attendance was numerous and influential. Mr. Edward Backhouse, of Sunderland, Chairman of the League, presided, and was supported by Sir Harcourt Johnstone, Bart., M.P.; the Right Hon. James Stansfeld, M.P.; Rev. G. Butler, M.A., Mrs. Butler, Dr. Ewing Whittle, Mrs. Whittle, of Liverpool; Mr. Alderman Rees, J.P., Dover; Mr. John P. Thomasson, Alderley Edge; Mr. S. J. Ainge, Birmingham; Mr. and Mrs. Richardson, Mrs. Casson, York; Mr. and Mrs. Elmy, Congleton; Mr. W. Rowntree, York; Mr. Joseph Edmondson, Mrs. Edmondson, Mrs. Blakey, Rev. W. J. Townsend, Mr. G. B. Browne, J.P., Rev. F. E. Millson, Halifax; Messrs. J. and H. J. Taylor, Bingley; Rev. E. H. Davies, Birstall; Mr. Robert Vaughan, Shipley; Mr. and Mrs. Edward Walker, Mr. John Hanson,

Miss Dinah Goodall, Leeds; Rev. J. Midgley, Armley; Rev. J. Bevan, Pudsey; Mrs. Stables, Horsforth; Rev. J. Pogson, Calverley; Rev. G. McCallum, Dewsbury; Mr. C. H. Murray, Mr. C. J. Herford, Manchester; Rev. J. Boyd, West Moulton; Mr. I. W. Wilson, Kendall; Mr. F. Clark, Newcastle-on-Tyne; Mr. Thomas Brooksbank, Harden; Mr. and Mrs. J. W. Wilson, and Mr. and Mrs. H. J. Wilson, Sheffield.

Among the residents in Bradford were the Revs. Canon Mitton, B. Wood, H. Hoare, H. Leach, Jas. Bruce, A. R. Pearson, S. Wright, A. G. Russell, M.D., J. Heaton, Robt. Stephenson, B.A., W. C. Shearer, A. Russell, M.A., G. M. Webb, B.A., R. Tanfield, P. Cronin, G. Smith, J. H. Morgan, H. J. Staley; and Messrs. E. West, J.P., E. Priestman, Robt. Kell, Joshua Pollard, and numerous others.

Letters of apology were presented from the Right Hon. J. W. Henley, M.P., Sir W. Lawson, M.P., Mr. Burt, M.P., Mr. Holt, M.P., Mr. Jacob Bright, the Rev. W. Arthur, the Rev. C. S. Collingwood, M.A. (Southwick), the Rev. G. T. Fox (Durham), Dr. Carter (Liverpool), Mr. W. C. Parker (Darlington), and the Rev. Dr. Duff, formerly of Calcutta, and late Moderator of the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland. Sir Wilfrid Lawson said in his letter:—

"I wish you all success in your efforts to repeal the Acts of Parliament to which your League is opposed. Mr. Gladstone has said that Government ought to 'make it easy to do right and difficult to do wrong.' I agree with this canon for legislation. The Acts in question go right in the teeth of it, and effectually provide facilities for the practice of immorality. I rejoice that a late eminent colleague of Mr. Gladstone, is now taking a prominent part in striving to repeal such pernicious legislation. The press sneers at him for 'hoisting a moral flag,' and placing the claims of morality above the claims of party, but I shall be much surprised and disappointed if the bulk of his fellow-countrymen do not ultimately indorse the upright and manly position which he has taken up on this question."

Mr. Henley wrote:—

"I am now, from the effects of old age, quite unable to attend such meetings as that you invite me to attend at Bradford. I heartily wish you and the cause you have in hand, God-speed."

My first word against this legislation, when first introduced at two o'clock in the morning was, that it was wrong for the Government to provide 'clean sin' for the people. This is, and will be, my last, added to my admiration of those high-minded and glorious women, who have so boldly fought this battle in the cause of morality and religion, taking up their cross, and despising the shame."

The proceedings having been opened by prayer, offered by the Rev. B. Wood,

The CHAIRMAN said it was deeply interesting to see such an influential gathering met to confer on this subject, which was so near to so many of their hearts; one on which they thought they were called upon to use all the force which they could command to get these obnoxious statutes off the Statute Book. The legalization of vice was certainly a fact which, he thought, the religious public ought to look upon with great jealousy, and he did look to the religious public to go vigorously forth and protest against Acts remaining on the Statute Book, which were contrary to the law of God, and contrary to morality. (Hear, hear.) He was sure that the meeting was convinced that these Acts were antagonistic to God's law, and he hoped the Conference would bring out various questions connected with the subject so clearly, that all should go away more determined than ever to do their utmost to arouse public opinion, especially amongst the congregations of the country, so that the religious people who desired to see the prosperity of the Kingdom of Christ might come boldly forward. Notwithstanding that the subject itself was not a tempting one, it was all the more important that they should feel its evil nature, and bear their honest testimony against it. They knew that eighteen districts of the country were already subject to this law, and the question had arrived at a point which showed that the result must either be the entire extinction of these Acts, or their application to the entire civil population of the country. Their abolition, he (the Chairman) believed, was what all present really desired. (Hear, hear.) He admitted that there were many good people—chiefly, he believed, for want of information—in favour of these Acts. It was the business of repealers to do their utmost to inform the public, and especially the religious public, and that he trusted would be one result of this meeting. (Hear, hear.) An appeal had been prepared, addressed to the religious congregations throughout the country, and he would ask his friend, Mr. Wilson, of Sheffield, the Hon. Secretary, and one of the hardest workers of the cause, to read that appeal. (Applause.)

Mr. H. J. WILSON said the object of the Conference was chiefly to consider the best way in which the movement for the repeal of the Acts should be most effectively carried on; and the chief way in which the League suggested this should be accomplished, during the next few months was, by circulating the appeal to which the chairman had referred. It had been thought desirable that the Christian churches should be induced to make greater and more united efforts than had yet been made, to secure the abolition of the Acts. The difficulty they found in many instances was, that although ministers and leading members of the congregations were perfectly well disposed to bring the matter forward, they were unable to do so for want of definite

information; and it had therefore occurred to the League, and to the other Associations working for the same object, that if they were to circulate an appeal, which might be read to the congregations at a special meeting, or at some suitable time, it would be productive of very great good, and would explain the question to those ignorant of it. It was proposed to send this document, accompanied by a letter, and also with forms of petition against the Acts, to the ministers and congregations throughout the north of England; and the same course would probably be taken in other districts.

The appeal having been read, the Chairman introduced Sir H. Johnstone, Bart., who, he said, had kindly undertaken to introduce into Parliament a Bill for the repeal of the Acts. (Applause.)

Sir HARCOURT JOHNSTONE, Bart., M.P., who was warmly applauded, said he had not been asked to move any resolution, and he concluded, therefore, that their proceedings were to be rather of a conversational character. In undertaking the responsibility of bringing forward in the next session of Parliament a Bill for the repeal of these Acts, he felt that he should require the utmost sympathy and heartiest co-operation of all the friends of the movement. He had felt considerable reluctance to coming forward as the advocate of Repeal, as he had not formerly taken such a prominent part in support of the question as many gentlemen who were present. It was more especially on account of the pressure on the part of some of the friends of the movement in the House of Commons—Mr. Stansfeld and others—and the advocacy of Mrs. Butler and other friends, that he had been induced to throw himself into the gap. (Hear, hear.) Nevertheless, he might say, that the more he went into the case, and examined the figures—he hoped accurately and impartially—the more he was convinced that there never was, nor ever could be, the slightest justification for these Acts; and it was the duty of both sexes—whatever might be said about women not taking part in the movement—never to relax in their efforts for their Repeal. (Hear, hear.) For himself, he had a strong feeling that the Acts would be repealed. (Hear, hear.) He had read of the great fights that had taken place in these northern counties for the abolition of slavery. They had found that the great friends of the negro in those days, were the members of the Quaker denomination, and of the other religious and God-fearing denominations of the country. He felt that when these were on his side, the cause was won. He had, indeed, never had any fear that these Acts could be enforced in the counties north of the Trent. The lowest state of civilization, and the lowest state of public opinion on this question, was found in the south, and not in the north; and that was the reason why they in the north should not stand still, and allow the Acts to be introduced into these parts of the country. They must have regard, not only to the large towns, but to those military stations which were about to be established. (Hear, hear.) He did not propose on that occasion to go into statistics on the question, but he must say, that what they needed more than anything else was, to overcome the scruples, ignorance, and want of information of those exceedingly worthy people who disliked to touch the question, and who put all papers and pamphlets on the Acts straight into the waste-paper basket; who were disinclined to touch the question because of its

unsavouriness, and because they believed there might be some good accomplished by those who handled these Acts. This inertia, and want of information of the part of those who ought to know better, had to be removed before they could make much progress. (Hear, hear.) In consequence of the law-abiding disposition of the English people, it always required a great struggle and agitation, to get an Act of Parliament repealed. These were the weakest points in their case. With regard to the moral and constitutional, as well as the medical grounds, the want of information to which he had referred, was the great thing that they had to overcome. Let their League organise a thorough method of diffusing information throughout the length and breadth of the land. These were the means by which they would have to bring about the repeal of the Acts. They could not do it by denunciation, nor even by making the subject a test question at elections, so much as by addressing fair arguments and statements, that could not be impugned, to reasonable and thoughtful men. (Hear, hear.) Such men were more likely to be influenced by calm words, than to be driven by threats that the question should be made a test at Parliamentary elections. He was afraid that his advocacy of the measure might be very imperfect, and that his weight in the House of Commons might not, at any rate next session, carry Repeal in the face of so large a Conservative majority, though many of the Conservatives considered that it was not a question of Liberalism or Conservatism, but was more a question of the honour, morality, and the philanthropy of the country, than of party politics. (Hear, hear.) For himself, he should endeavour to carry the measure to a successful end, and he knew that he should receive the co-operation of many able men, such as Mr. Stansfeld, and others, who were in earnest in reference to these Acts. (Applause.)

The Rev. G. BUTLER, M.A., next spoke. He added his testimony to the value of Mr. Stansfeld's appeal to the religious bodies, rejoicing that Mr. Stansfeld had so clearly seen that a question so deeply affecting the welfare of the community could only be decided upon moral and religious grounds, and said: Not that we shrink from an encounter with the pro-Acts party on physical grounds. The scientific fallacies of the supporters of the Acts have been ably exposed by Dr. Nevins, of Liverpool, who has proved, from unquestionable evidence, that the supposed physical advantages are a delusion. But although this may prove the most telling argument upon legislation, yet our best appeal to the conscience of the people will be made upon broad principles of morality and religion. We cannot accept the doctrine that vice is a necessity, nor consent to abandon the most weak and defenceless portion of the population to the lusts of unprincipled men; nor can we allow that vice, even if freed from some of its coarseness, or even of its peril, is therefore less destructive to the soul of man. After expressing the pleasure it would give him, as a minister of the Church of England, to see united action on the part of that body against the Acts, Mr. Butler, alluding to the extension of our work on the Continent, said: Correspondence with eminent persons in foreign capitals has shown us, that were the Acts extended to every seaport in England, as contemplated by their supporters, it would not only rivet the chains of oppression and

make vice triumphant amongst ourselves, but strengthen the hands of vice and oppression abroad; and, also, that the repeal of the Acts in England, alone, would not suffice to put down the evils of the system. We must combine more closely with our fellow-workers in Paris, Berlin, Brussels, &c., so as to abolish the system of State-regulated vice in those countries where the evil plant first took root, which has lately been imported amongst us, to spread corruption over the English soil. Mr. Butler then described the Continental work initiated by the Ladies' National Association, with which readers of *The Shield* have already been made acquainted through the Report of the Association, paid a warm tribute to the zeal and energy of Messrs. Wilson and Edmonson, of the Northern League, and expressed his conviction that the memory of this anniversary meeting would be cherished as having infused new life and vigour into a great movement in aid of right and justice, social purity, and true religion.

The Rev. A. G. RUSSELL, M.D., said, that although it might be true that the Acts were of some prophylactic benefit, that was no reason why anyone should advocate their extension, so long as they were wrong in principle, and opposed to the law of God. (Hear, hear.) He had several objections to the Acts, which induced him to give his fullest support to the movement for their repeal. He objected to them on account of the inequality of their incidence—that they did not deal equally with men and women; and because they had not realized their object as prophylactic measures. He had yet to learn that disease had been materially lessened; that the Acts had not, in fact, led to a more subtle and a greater extension of vice. He also objected to them because they were an attempt to remedy an evil by wrong means. It was not creditable to this Christian country that we should give sinful men an inducement to commit sin, by seeking to forestall the evil results which followed that sin. But his most important ground of objection was that taken by Sir Harcourt Johnstone,—that these Acts were in spirit absolutely opposed to the Word of God. (Applause.)

Dr. E. WHITTLE, M.D. (Liverpool), denied that the Acts' even if as thoroughly carried out as it was possible for them to be, would be of any prophylactic value. It was simply impossible that they could ever in this country be thoroughly carried out. No member of Parliament dare stand up in the House of Commons and urge that the Acts should be enforced on men, equally with women. He then gave an account of a discussion which had taken place among medical men in Liverpool, as to the efficiency of the Acts to stamp out disease; and said, that one of the medical gentlemen who had been mainly instrumental in obtaining the passing of the Acts, had been sent down to Liverpool, and had been unable to say a single word in reply to the arguments brought forward by the opponents of the Acts.

Mrs. J. E. BUTLER: Others will have practical questions to bring before you. I hope it will not be considered unpractical, however, if I dwell for a few minutes on that which it is needful for us all to think of frequently—the far-reaching character of our movement and the radical nature of the principles which it involves. I venture particularly to remind electors, those engaged in the electioneering and Parliamentary

part of the work, and those representatives of the people who have now become our fellow workers (for these, I think, require more than women do to be often reminded), that the particular contest in which we are engaged, for the repeal of a law, is only a small part of a far greater controversy; a controversy the seeds of which have lain dormant since the beginning of the world, and the ripened fruits of which will herald the approach of the reign of peace and justice on earth. The question which we have raised in this nineteenth century, lies at the root of all that most vitally affects the life of nations, and the progress of the human race. Looking back over the five short years of our labours, we cannot but be struck by seeing how, under the energizing influence of a searching test-question addressed to the consciences of men, the field of our operations has widened, and the soil has deepened, since the time when we first challenged public opinion on this root question of human life—the true relation of the sexes. We may well become conscious, as time goes on, of intellectual and spiritual inadequacy for the greatness of the work; at first we seemed to look over it, as we might over our own private field of labour. Then wider fields and broader lines of country beyond, came into sight; the horizon retreated more and more; and now we see that the truth, which we, in our weakness, stood up to declare, is co-eternal with all that we know of God's truth, and it fills us with awe to think what we have set our hands to do. Our movement, small in its beginning, has increased and will increase and not cease until it has embraced in its onward flow all the nations of the earth in which the governing power and the stronger portion of society are now allowing and patronising this profane and costly sacrifice of souls to the demon of lust. We are but the heralds of the dawn. Let us be faithful to our task, and those who come after us will rejoice in the fulness of the light of day. Our hopes are not the hopes of fanatics; our anticipations are sobered by the conviction that there is a severe conflict before us, and the two armies of good and evil must yet meet in a deadly encounter. Opposition will increase; hatred will deepen. Passion and interest will combine to present to us a wall of obstinate resistance, the strength of which we have not yet fully tested. But who will dare to say that evil will finally master good? My husband has told you something of the echoes of the storm in other lands. There are voices reaching us from far countries; a shaking among the dry bones; some little perturbation even, at last, among the upper classes of society, who, as a rule, care for none of these things. It is manifest that on all sides it begins to be felt that the principle is to be decided whether male profligacy, at the expense of women, is to be condoned, excused, and darkly perpetuated, or to be sternly condemned and pertinaciously resisted. This question has got to be answered—to be answered first by England, before Europe and the whole world. The answer to this question involves the sweeping away of that whole corrupt fabric of injustice and inequality in matters moral, and in the relations of men and women, upon which, alone, was it possible for men to erect this last abomination of legalized vice and slavery. In the answer to this question is involved the expulsion from men's minds of the radical and woe-working error that woman was made *for man*, and not, equally with himself, for God; a being, not permitted merely, but

morally bound before God to command the uses of her soul, alone, upon the threshold of her individual being, to appear and answer before God, with no sacrilegious and impotent interposition of man, for vicarious responsibility or selfish protection. When, in the whole course of the life and teaching of Him whom we call Lord and Master, do we find him subjecting women to the will, government, or caprice of men, or in any way sanctioning the notion that superior physical strength is to constitute the ultimate appeal in deciding the relations to each other of immortal and spiritual beings? When do we find Him assigning her a place as a mere minister to the male sex, for his convenience or pleasure, or even for his highest good, save in the sense in which we are all divinely called to minister to, and not to hinder each other's moral and spiritual growth? When do we ever find Him showing such a partiality for the stronger sinner, man, as to "stamp out" the remotest possibility of moral recovery, or the feeblest sparks of lingering humanity, in the most wretched of outcast women, in order that the stronger sinner might sin without suffering? On the contrary, His dealings with women, even more emphatically than with men, expressed a setting free, a loosing of bonds, an elevation to equality of dignity with man; not by increasing the weight of her skull, or adding strength to her muscles, but by bestowing wisdom, humility, holiness, and power; and I think few will deny that it was evidently intended by that holy Teacher that these spiritual forces should supersede muscles and weapons of war in the government of societies and states, and that it would have been better for the world if they had done so. Contagious Diseases Acts, framed for the careful superintendence of women devoted to the systematic service of the lusts of men, will disappear from the face of the earth, together with their originators and patrons when we shall have succeeded in bringing our accepted and conventional morality face to face with Jesus of Nazareth. The work is widening rapidly. The challenge has gone forth, not in England only, but in the countries of Europe and in America. We shall have to acknowledge that it was providential that the corrupt doctrine was at last put into legal shape in England, and vice openly licensed; for when this is done, discussion arises, the license of men and the oppression of women are brought to light, and then the fight begins; and once begun, it cannot end till the one or the other principle rule. When we shall have won our parliamentary battle at home, England will become a great lever-power for the rest of the world, and it will be her duty then to supply the moral force needed for the purifying of society elsewhere. Principles, if they are to be permanently established, must be universally established. We have heard of consular conventions and international agreements. We must defeat them. There is no time to lose, for the work of corruption is rapid, and will not be counteracted by efforts made in the few spare moments of men who are so taken up with their money-making, their dinner-parties, their church and chapel affairs, and their own family matters, as to have neither time nor money to spare for this pressing cause. Each day, more and more appalling evidence reaches us that the regulation system creates horrors far beyond those which it is supposed to restrain. Vice once stimulated by this system, imagines and dares all unutterable things; and such things perplex with misery the lives of parents of

missing children in Continental cities, and daunt the courage of rulers, and madden the moral sense, and gnaw the conscience of whole orders of sinners and sufferers of whom we can form no conception here. We shall have entered upon our national decline whenever we slacken our efforts in opposing such a system. Farewell, then, to the distinctive honour and privilege of our country and people—the adoption of the family as the basis of society, and the reverence and love of the sacredness of the home as the security for all that, as a nation, we have and hope for. Just as this great typical abomination of harlotry comprises within its bosom all other abominations—

“All evil thoughts and deeds,  
Anger, and lust, and pride;  
The foulest, rankest weeds  
That choke life's groaning tide,”

so does the opposition to this typical abomination and the moral revival implied in that opposition, include the germs of all that we hope for in that day when the earth shall be released from her bondage, and the rod of the oppressor shall be broken, when there shall be no bewildering inconsistencies, no hollow virtues nor specious crimes; when none shall hold advantages bought by the blood and tears of his fellow. But in order to attain our immediate and specific object, as well as to grasp and reach the wider and deeper aims, we want devoted and self-denying men and women. Once more, from the retirement of my home, from the seclusion of my own chamber, I come before you, to ask you, friends, to receive my message, for I am but a messenger, and to hearken to this call to greater self-devotion. We have seen persons coming out, here and there, one by one, to give themselves to this work, a spark of living fire has kindled in their hearts, and, as we look at them, we know that these are the people who will move the world. Some of our former Conferences, such as this to-day, have been marked by an impulse to greater zeal in individual workers, and I pray God that from this day, and from this Conference, may date an earnest re-dedication of many to the cause; for this cause will not be won without sacrifice. The fact that work is done so much by large associations now-a-days, tends to lessen the sense of individual responsibility; yet it is certain that the progress of this, as of all great reformatory movements, depends on the devotion and constancy of individuals. To the awakening of the private conscience, has God committed the real history and progress of mankind. There is a power among us, which is not recognised by the *Times* newspaper, or by the press or public in general; the only power which can defeat the powers of darkness—I mean, the power of the Spirit of God; and when this power is put forth irresistibly, for the subversion of evil, it is chiefly manifested through influences the most human, and agencies the most personal. It makes itself felt through the warm pressure of human hands stretched forth to help—through the earnest affection of human eyes, accustomed to penetrate the unseen. The miracles of men's lives are the only miracles which will convince and convert, and which will overthrow the materialism of the day. We hear much talk about Christianity; we want the reality now. We want men like those of old, who passed through life as “unknown, yet well known; as dying, and behold they live; as chastened, and not killed; as sorrowful, yet always rejoicing; as poor, yet making many

rich; as having nothing, yet possessing all things; taking pleasure in infirmities, in reproaches, in necessities, in persecutions, in distresses, for Christ's sake.” We want men who will live as those live who are watching on the eve of a great crisis towards which all their efforts are directed; who feel how slight and small are all minor considerations; how little it matters to plant and to build, and to plan and to establish themselves in comfort, how little it matters whether they have in this life a little more or less of success or happiness; men who will count not their own lives dear unto them, who will go forth whithersoever the Divine decree shall ordain, pressing on to labour in the great harvest-field before the sun goes down; men who will cease to make any nice or niggardly calculations of how much of the world, of ease, or wealth, or pleasantness they can manage to give up, and of how much they may retain, but who will question rather how they may give up their all, and make of their lives a complete holocaust. In the contest against slavery in America, men and women gave up fortune, home, friends, and life itself. The system against which we contend is one which has as deeply corrupted the life of nations as Negro Slavery has done; the evil we oppose is rooted in a yet more cruel negation of human brotherhood, and a more immoral violation of the principle of liberty. There is a gaping wound, a yawning gulf in the midst of us, which, like that of the Roman Forum, will not close until warriors, brave, undaunted, clad in the impenetrable armour of purity, shall fling *themselves* into the breach.

“His strength was as the strength of ten  
Because his heart was pure.”

Many are conscious that these words are an armour which does not fit themselves. But let those who cannot look back over their past life without regret and pain, recall to-day the everlasting truth that perfect and everlasting oblivion of the past is held forth by God himself at the portal of the new life, for all the erring sons and daughters of God. Is it too much to hope that men will learn to spare a little more time from the dreary pursuit of wealth, which, when it comes alone, comes like the apples of Sodom; that of that wealth itself, some will be willing to dedicate a large share to this work, and that others may, from this day, begin to give what is more than all silver and gold—the self-denying labours of a consecrated life. The victory, which may not be near, but which is certain, will be not merely the repulse of an attack by the enemy of all good, but a turning point in the history of our country and the world. Our battle belongs to a great and extensive field of spiritual war; we are standing at a key position, and are called to promote a revival of faith on the earth, with higher views of righteousness and purity. No matter if we, the pioneers, lay our bones in the dust; others will pass over them to victory. Let us remember the cry of the Crusaders (and ours is a better crusade), “God wills it, God wills it!”

Mr. STANSFELD, M.P., said, he trusted that they had all listened to the words of Mrs. Butler, as true as they were beautiful, with not only assenting, but reverent hearts. It was the spirit that had breathed through those words, which had brought this movement to its present phase. He was one of those who had joined it late, and he could not help on that occasion looking

back on the five years or more of toil, trial, persecution and obloquy, to which Mrs. Butler, and the men and women who had laboured with her, had been subjected. (Hear.) They would not have been there that day, determined to seek the repeal of these obnoxious Acts, had it not been for the initiative of women—(hear, hear); and he trusted that, upon all great and typical occasions, when they met together to protest against such laws, women as well as men would meet, in order to protest. (Hear, hear.) He made this remark with a practical view. He hoped that at length men were being roused upon the subject, and he believed he could show that the movement was destined to a very great enlargement. In all probability Christian denominations, conscious of their duty upon a question which was moral and religious if it were anything, would descend into the political arena. The question might become more popular in consequence of the advocacy of it in Parliament by his friend Sir Harcourt Johnstone, and it might be more easy to hold large assemblies of men, and to find members of Parliament or others to come upon the platforms and speak. Looking forward, to this proximate future, he trusted that all of them who were responsible in their various localities (or who might be so) for the management of that agitation, would hold firm and fast by this principle—that the question was one even more for women than it was for men; that it owed more to women than it did to men, and that women should never be excluded from it, but should always be kept reverently in front. (Applause.) As that was a Conference on the whole for practical suggestions, he would endeavour to make one or two in the fewest possible words. What were at this moment the forces most needed for the accomplishment of their purpose? The question had two aspects—a moral and a scientific—and they had two things to do which depended upon those two aspects of the question. In the first place they had to hope for and strive to attain this result—that all those who by their organization, like religious bodies, were under especial pledges to do what they could for the cause of morality and religion in the country, should make this their question. And in the next place they had to deal with the scientific part of the question, and to show that that had not yet been dealt with in a truly scientific spirit. They had abundant cause for hope with regard to the moral aspect of the question. Mr. Butler had stated that the Wesleyans were about to move collectively upon the subject, and they all knew the weight, numbers, zeal, earnestness and power of that denomination. Well, he (Mr. Stansfeld) held in his hand a letter from the Secretary of the National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, who wrote:—"As another indication of progress I have to report that, at an influential meeting of the United Methodist Free Churches, held in Louth, in October, it was decided to appoint two ministers of that body, resident in London, to join the Committee of the National Association, to take part in its councils, and to represent the United Methodist Free Churches. No doubt these gentlemen and other large and important sections of Dissenters will be speedily engaged in advancing the cause we have at heart." This, he thought, was a very good omen of future denominational action upon this question. As to the scientific side of the question, their opponents, as the Conference had been already told, did two things; first of all

they ignored and pooh-poohed morals; they said this was not a moral question; and in the next place they assumed a scientific air, and told the advocates for the repeal of the Acts, that they ignored facts. He thought, however, they could show that they did not ignore facts, and that those who persisted in building up an obnoxious theory, upon the limited and worthless experience of half-a-dozen years in the few subjected districts of the country, and in opposing that limited and worthless experience to the teachings of generations over the whole continent of Europe, were the men who were wanting in scientific method of approaching what they held to be a scientific question. (Applause.) But they spoke or affected to speak with an authority which laymen could not assume. They would, however, in all probability, be enabled to fight these gentlemen with their own weapons, and upon their own ground. Of the fact that the medical profession was divided on the question they had had evidence at that Conference, and further evidence was furnished by the circumstance that at Liverpool, a short time ago, he found a great number of medical men deeply interested in the subject, taking the view which those in that room took of it, and, above all, strong upon the ground of the immorality of these Acts—(hear, hear)—and prepared to say that whatever the hygienic results might be, they would oppose the Acts, because they were Christians and moral-minded men, before they were men of a so-called science of health. He found also that these gentlemen had given some practical issue to that condition of their minds, and the Conference had heard of the admirable memorial drawn up by Dr. Nevins, and presented to the Home Secretary, analysing the Government returns, and exposing their futility and worthlessness from a sanitary point of view. Their Committee met the other day at Liverpool, and the subject of discussion was the formation there of a National Association of medical men opposed to these Contagious Diseases Acts. (Applause.) A resolution was passed in favour of the constitution of such a body, and promises of adherence had already come in from medical men in Liverpool and elsewhere, sufficient to guarantee the success of the association. He did not believe in the courage of the original conceivers, and the wire-pulling supporters, of this legislation. They were too fond of carrying on their proceedings in the dark for him to have much faith in their courage, and he believed that this commencement of a medical association, to fight them upon their own ground, would take out of them the greater part of what little courage might be left in them. (Laughter.) Another thing appeared to him desirable to be done. The denominations, he was satisfied, would, one by one descend into the political arena, and show themselves determined that a law which sinned against the religion of the land, and the moral sense of the community, should not be allowed to continue. (Applause.) They would act congregationally and denominationally; they would act within the electoral constituencies upon the constituencies, and upon members and candidates. He agreed with Sir Harcourt Johnstone, that it was not advisable, in dealing with the candidate or member, to put a pistol to his head, and say to him, "Vote for such a law, or the repeal of such a law; we give you no time to consider; we do not endeavour to persuade or convince; we simply threaten you, and tell you to vote, or you lose our support—you lose your seat, or your chance of a

seat." He did not approve of that, and he did not believe that independent-minded men—and he supposed there were some such on the benches of the House of Commons—were likely to be favourably affected by proceedings of that kind. In fact, they might put their backs against the wall, and return a less favourable answer than, by a more judicious manipulation, might have been extracted from them. But he had no apprehension for the future upon this subject for, looking at the action which the Northern League had suggested, they would not have upon their hands, as an Association having in view the repeal of these Acts, the responsibility of holding this pistol at the heads of recusant members of Parliament. When the organization now contemplated was completed, there would be in every constituency, or nearly so, bodies of the constituents themselves; and no one could dispute *their* right to address their candidates, or members, on any subject in which they were interested; and it would be their function, because they would have been awakened and enlightened, to address arguments of a convincing character to those members or candidates, which, hitherto, had been obliged to be addressed to unwilling ears by those noble men, and still nobler women, who had so long led this hope that had hitherto seemed forlorn. (Applause.) One thing remained, which he should like to suggest. There was a Northern Counties' League, a Scottish National Association, a Midland Counties' Electoral Union, for the repeal of the Acts; there ought to be, in his opinion, three more electoral unions formed, not for holding pistols, but for deputing other people to hold pistols—one for the west of England, practically speaking, for Wales, and which would probably be started at Newport; one for the south-west, and one for the south-eastern counties. He knew the difficulty of holding meetings in the subjected districts. The populations of those districts were largely either naval or military, or dependent upon those professions, and they were too much interested in the maintenance of the Acts. Their prejudices were too strong to make it an easy matter to hold meetings, or obtain a fair hearing in those districts. But those districts were surrounded by others which were free from such influences, and he did not see why, following the example of the Northern Counties' Association, and taking a leaf out of the book of the late Home Secretary, Lord Aberdare, they should not construct two county nets in the south-west and the south-east, in which they could gradually enfold and enclose the subjected districts, and bring a pressure to bear upon them of which they would not find it so easy to get rid. (Hear, hear.) He had heard that agitation likened to the anti-slavery agitation in the United States. In the United States freedom came to the slaves not from the South, but from the North; but he was not prepared to admit the exact analogy of the two cases. In the Southern States every white was interested in the maintenance of negro slavery, but in the subjected districts, though many were interested in the maintenance of the Acts, he had yet to believe that members of the Society of Friends, or of the Wesleyans, the United Methodists, or other religious bodies, were already so crushed, awed, and silenced by these Acts, that they were incapable of raising hand or voice against them in these districts. (Hear, hear.) On the contrary, the history of any movement for the redress of any great grievance, had always

taught them that the darkest hour was that which preceded the dawn, and that in the very place where the greatest mischief had apparently been successfully accomplished, sooner or later the moment of reaction and resistance would come, and some person or persons would be ready to assume the task of reform. He did not doubt it, and he trusted they would not; for, if he could believe it to be impossible to raise in the south-west and south-eastern districts, a spark of honest public virtue on that question, he should despair of public virtue and of progress, because all that would be needed then would be this—that by some use of a passing majority in Parliament, the Acts should be extended and kept in operation over the whole country for half a dozen years, and that then every part of the country should be discovered to be as demoralized, as reduced to a condition of cowardice and inaptitude, as the inhabitants of the subjected districts were sometimes supposed to be. As far as he was concerned, he for one would go down into those districts. (Applause.) He had proposed that a serious attempt should be made to organize south-eastern and south-western Electoral Unions, and that, when the time was ripe, public meetings should be held in the centre of those two districts at which the inauguration of those Associations should be proclaimed. If that work were done, and those meetings were held, he for one would attend them. (Hear.) Before sitting down, he would express some difference of opinion on one point from his friend Sir Harcourt Johnstone, who had said he had undertaken the honourable task of introducing a Bill to repeal the Acts, yielding to the urgent pressure that had been brought to bear upon him. Sir Harcourt Johnstone had spoken like a man who was as modest as he was capable and true, but he (Mr. Stansfeld) was bound to say that the only unwillingness was on the score of that modesty; there was no unwillingness based upon doubt—(hear, hear)—or reluctance based upon desire to avoid placing himself in a position of possible danger or obloquy. (Applause.)

Mr. EDMONDSON (Halifax), the treasurer of the League, also spoke, and urged all who revered God's holy law, to make every sacrifice and effort to secure the repeal of the Acts. He concluded by mentioning that their Chairman had just handed to him a cheque for his year's subscription, the amount being £400.

The Rev. Canon MOTLER moved the following resolution:—

"That this Conference of persons from various parts of the Northern Counties, who are favourable to the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, desires to thank Sir Harcourt Johnstone, Bart., M.P., for having undertaken to bring a Bill into the House of Commons in the next session of Parliament for the unconditional repeal of the Acts, and it respectfully urges on all members of Parliament the importance of supporting the Bill by every means in their power."

Mr. R. KELL, J.P. (Bradford), seconded the resolution, which was carried unanimously.

A vote of thanks to the Chairman, proposed by Mr. RICHARDSON (York), and seconded by Mr. J. P. THOMASSON (Alderley Edge), brought the Conference to a close.

A number of those present then proceeded to the Friends' Meeting House, where tea was provided in the school-room.

## THE PUBLIC MEETING IN ST. GEORGE'S HALL.

In the evening, a well-attended meeting was held in St. George's Hall, when, in addition to most of the ladies and gentlemen whose names have already been given as attending the Conference, there were upon the platform:—Messrs. A. J. Mundella, M.P.; Alfred Illingworth, late M.P. for Knaresborough; J. V. Godwin, late candidate for Bradford; Edward Crossley, Mayor of Halifax; J. Birkbeck Nevins, M.D., Liverpool, &c.

The chair was occupied by Alderman Edward West, J.P.

The CHAIRMAN said they had been called upon that evening to assist in the repeal of a law which was a disgrace to the Statute Book. He trusted that, from what they would hear from the gentlemen who would address them, they would be determined to assist in sweeping away these iniquitous laws. These Acts protected the stronger sex by making slaves of the weaker sex, and he trusted that our senators would soon be induced to grant Repeal. The Chairman then called upon

The SECRETARY, who announced letters of apology from a number of gentlemen who were unable to accept invitations to be present.

The CHAIRMAN read a letter from Bishop Ryan, which stated that he was in favour of the principles advocated by the meeting.

Mr. A. ILLINGWORTH moved that—

"This meeting hereby enters its solemn protest against the system of State-regulated vice embodied in the Contagious Diseases Acts 1866 to 1869, as offering encouragement to the spirit and practice of profligacy, as subversive of the first principles of justice, and as cruel and degrading to the women to whom it is applied. The meeting further calls upon members of Parliament, electors, members of Christian Churches, and every other class of the community, to aid in procuring the Repeal of these scandalous enactments."

He said the greatest suspicion lay against these Acts, from the manner in which they were passed through Parliament. The pride which they were accustomed to feel in their institutions was scarcely justified, if legislation of this character could be passed through Parliament when the press was asleep, and when all honest people were the same. (Laughter.) Another objection against these Acts was, that they were limited in their operation in the interests of a certain small class—though it had been said that it would be beneficial to extend them to the whole country. What class of men had so completely surrendered their liberty as our soldiers? If the army was decimated, as had been said, by these diseases, Parliament had it in its power to put in force such army regulations for these men, collectively or individually, as might be considered advisable. But it was an outrage upon common decency to put regulations in force against other classes, for the sake of that one. The opposition to this legislation must spread over far wider districts of the country than hitherto. Who could tell, if this kind of legislation were to go on, but that they might feel the operation of the Acts even in this district. It had been urged that the evil was of such magnitude, that this legislation was necessary. But we in this country had hitherto deliberately repudiated the policy of legalising vice which prevailed in foreign countries, and it would be disastrous for us if we were to imitate it.

Mr. E. CROSSLEY, Mayor of Halifax, in seconding the resolution, said they were met to deplore both the existence of a great social evil, and the remedy which had been proposed by a class that might be said to love darkness rather than light. The remedy proposed was not one to lessen the commission of the evil, but to lessen the physical consequences of the sin. When, four years since, his attention had been called to this subject by his wife, he could scarcely believe that such legislation existed. He was no enthusiast, but he trusted soon to see these laws repealed. (Applause.)

Sir HARCOURT JOHNSTONE, Bart., said he would put before them some facts which had been collected by Dr. Nevins, of Liverpool—facts which, even if he had been unconvinced before, would have convinced him. Looking at the Acts even from the lowest point of view—that of their medical effect—he was convinced that they could not be any longer maintained. It had been said by those who were ignorant of the facts, that the Acts diminished disease. The fact was that one class of these diseases had actually increased, and in the other there had been no sensible diminution. At first, after the passing of these Acts, men were encouraged in immorality; they imagined that there would be greater impunity from the consequences. He was glad to believe that after a time these men lost faith, as the promoters of this movement had done, in the belief that even Government could make prostitution safe. One paragraph of the report of the Royal Commission said there was no evidence that any diminution of disease was owing to the system of periodical examination. In Malta, which had been selected as a favourable place for experiment, because it could be surrounded by a cordon, and converted into a kind of Garden of Eden of the Contagious Diseases Acts, there had been, since the Acts were put in force, an increase. It had been said that what increase there was in protected places, had been caused by importation from without, and it was thence argued that the Acts should be applied generally. But he found that in Plymouth exactly the contrary was the case—the decrease was in the unprotected and the increase in the protected district. A gentleman of whom he thought highly, and who done good service in connection with the Merchant Shipping Bill, had, in going round the ports, told the shipowners something about making these Acts apply to all the ports of the kingdom. He thought if that gentleman would consider the reports of the effect of the Acts, he would reconsider his opinion. (Hear, hear.) Passing from the medical to the moral aspect of the question, which he believed was the one most regarded in Yorkshire, he would say that to regard vice as necessary was utterly opposed to the tenets of Christianity. (Applause.) If it were supposed that so far as the army and navy were concerned, prostitution was necessary, it was degrading to the nation to support a system which made such a thing necessary. He believed they, as Yorkshiremen, would not stand it much longer. It was said that the Acts had done something to raise the morale of the women. In fact, the Acts elevated the women into followers of a distinct profession. They established, practically, a registry office for sin, where a comfortable livelihood was to be obtained by all who would come up and register themselves for examination. Sir H. Johnstone then gave statistics showing that the Acts had tended to detain

women in prostitution until a much later age than had been the case before the Acts were in force. It had been said that the advice of the chaplains had frequently produced a good effect on the women. But did the Acts provide homes for the women to go to? No; that had been left to voluntary effort, the only agency capable of dealing with those evils. With regard to the ladies who took part in this movement, when people talked sneeringly about strong-minded women and so on, he asked what had compelled them to come forward. This was not a time to boast of the chivalry of men, while they read in the papers daily of the brutal conduct of men towards women. Women had at last come forward and said they would fight for themselves. (Applause.) These Acts were entirely unconstitutional. The women to whom they applied were the most defenceless of their class—not like women of similar character whom he had seen rolling in carriages through the streets of London—but with nobody to stand up for them, outcasts even from their own families. They were practically placed in the power of any policeman who would declare that he believed them to be common prostitutes. That was a power which should not be put in the hands of any man, and still less in the hands of any policeman. (Applause.) The result of such legislation had been on the Continent—that in Berlin, for instance, no woman dared be out after dark for fear of the spies. Women had had no share in the framing of these Acts, and therefore it was now their especial duty to come forward and say that they should be repealed. If it were a misdemeanor for a woman to be a prostitute, why should not men be put in the same category? (Applause.) Here was a crime in which two persons were involved, and only one was punished. (“Shame.”) He did not belong to the Peculiar People, who believed that all diseases should be allowed to take their course. He believed that disease should be cured—(hear, hear, and applause); but voluntary effort was quite as capable of dealing with this question, as it had dealt with other questions. Women had had no share in making the laws, and, therefore, he said, it was now the duty of the women to come forward, and do their utmost, through their husbands, friends, ministers, and every other possible agency, in insisting that the Acts should be repealed, and in declaring that the work of reclaiming fallen women should not be left with the State, but should be entirely done by voluntary effort? There was a time, when his father represented the whole of this county, when Wilberforce asked them, in the name of humanity, to intercede for the wretched negroes, and he (Sir H. Johnstone) that night asked them, though in feebler tones, yet with quite as earnest a heart, to take compassion on those women, and not to allow them to be down-trodden and further degraded. (Applause.) He asked them to stand up as Englishmen, Yorkshiremen, and Christians, to say that these Acts should become dead letters. (Applause.)

Mr. MUNDELLA, M.P., who was loudly cheered on coming forward, said: With all my heart I rise to second the resolution which has been moved and seconded, and so very ably supported by my hon. friend the member for Scarborough. There is one part of it that reads thus:—

“This meeting hereby enters its solemn protest against the system of State-regulated vice embodied in the Contagious Diseases Acts, 1866

and 1869, as affording encouragement to the spirit and practice of profligacy, as subversive of the first principles of justice, and as cruel and degrading to the women to whom it is applied.”

Now, having sat for a period, I think, of about six months, investigating the working of these Acts, I can bear my testimony to the truth of every word that is stated in that resolution. This is the first time that I have stood on a public platform to take any part in the agitation against these Acts. And I confess to you, that I came here with the greatest possible reluctance; and that nothing but an overpowering sense of duty would have enabled me to master my repugnance to entering on the public discussion of this question. (Hear, hear.) But the position has been forced upon us. (Hear, hear.) We have no alternative but to take this course. The manner in which these Acts were placed upon the Statute Book, the misapprehensions, misrepresentations, and misconceptions by which they are retained there, compel us to go before the public, and ask for public opinion to enable us to deal with Parliament, and to require their immediate Repeal. (Cheers.) I know, from the long and painful experience I had in this investigation, how impossible it is for me, in a brief speech, to lay before you all, or even a tithe, of the various phases of the evidence which came before us, which ought to weigh with you, and which weigh with me, to insist upon this legislation being eradicated from our Statute Book. I shall not attempt it; I shall confine myself to two or three points; and I do so because these are the first points necessary to be impressed on your mind, to establish a right understanding how this legislation came about, and what are the means by which it is at present maintained. I say, then, my first point is this, to bring before you the manner in which this legislation was placed upon the Statute Book, and the means by which it is retained there; and my second point will be to bring before you the results of the only fair investigation that ever was held into the working of these Acts, so as to enable you to judge for yourselves whether that report of the Royal Commission went far enough, and to say whether it ought not to have gone further, and recommended the repeal of the Acts. I know, that in coming forward to discharge this duty, I must take my share of the obloquy which is cast upon every one who attempts to work a change in the direction taken by this Association. A month ago, my right hon. friend the member for Halifax made a speech of remarkable power, of striking eloquence, replete with arguments against the continuance of these Acts. How was he treated? Nobody has attempted to answer that speech. (Hear, hear.) I believe it to be unanswerable. (Hear, hear.) Nobody has attempted to answer it, though numbers have treated it with jibes, and scoffs, and sneers. These are the means by which it is attempted to retain the Acts, and to deter members of Parliament and public men from discussing it. I know how this comes about. The *Times*, for instance, the leading journal of this country, is always grave and decorous in dealing with these questions, and with all questions, I believe. But how did it treat the speech of my right hon. friend? Had it been some foolish speech at a farmer's club—(laughter)—not only would every word have been reported, but probably, if there had been one grain of sense in it, the *Times* would have seized it and made the most of it. But they dismissed this very

remarkable speech of my right hon. friend with a few words only; and these are the words:—"We sincerely regret to find a statesman of Mr. Stansfeld's eminence identifying himself with the hysterical crusade against the Contagious Diseases Acts . . . . No question is less likely to unite the still scattered forces of the Liberal party." (Laughter.) Now, the imputation conveyed in these lines is that my right hon. friend is attempting by this agitation to "re-unite the still scattered forces of the Liberal party." Why, no sane man would ever dream of treating this as a party question. (Cheers.) It is a question above party—(hear, hear); it is a question of constitutional freedom—(hear, hear); it is a question of national morality. (Cheers.) I say further, that the more searching the investigation is into the authorship of these Acts, the more will it be proved that the Liberal party was as guilty as the Conservative party in placing them upon the Statute Book. (Hear, hear.) Aye, if any party will suffer from this agitation, it will be the Liberal party. In the first instance, I am sure that it will be the Liberal party that will suffer, because our Conservative friends—I am not going to introduce politics—do not divide about trifles; but we are men generally of strong convictions, and we carry them to the ballot-box. (Cheers.) As for making political capital out of it, I shall be very thankful to forego my share of political capital; and I shall be grateful to any Government, however much I may be opposed to it in other respects, that will put an end to the existence of this national scandal, and will let us bury it away in silence and oblivion for ever. (Cheers.) Now, how is it that so many good people in this country, and so large a portion of the press of this country, are opposed to any discussion of this question? In the first place, we, as Englishmen, have great faith in our political institutions; as we have a right to have. We believe in Parliamentary government, and, on the whole, we are right to believe in it. We believe that no Acts can be put upon the Statute Book without the consent of the people; that public opinion must first be created in the direction of a law, before it can ever become a law; or, at any rate, a binding and working law, for the people of this country. I believe that if any foreigner were to declare it possible that Acts of Parliament could be passed in his country without the assent of public opinion, without the nation being consulted, without the nation knowing anything at all about them, especially Acts affecting the constitutional liberty and the morality of the country, we should at once thank God we did not live in that country, and say it could not happen in this country. Well, numbers of people in this country, finding these Acts upon the Statute Book, assume that Parliament, in its wisdom, has deliberated fairly upon them, has found them to be necessary, and agreed that they should be carried into operation. And they say, when this agitation is introduced, "Why do you agitate? Parliament has, no doubt, done all that is right and proper in the matter; we don't want to have so unpleasant and unsavoury a question thrust upon our attention!" But I want to tell you there has been no public discussion, no public consideration, no debate in Parliament, no explanation even, of these Acts in Parliament before they were put upon the Statute Book. (Hear, hear, and cries of "Shame.") Our opponents give themselves, I was going to say, Pecksniffian airs, and say, "What extraordinary people you are! You know very well

these Acts were necessary. You know that the contest is a contest betwixt statesmanship and science on the one hand and folly and fanaticism on the other." And, if a member of Parliament gets up in his place (I have noticed this particularly) in the House to discuss the question, and deals only with the moral and constitutional part of it, it is reported next day, "He dealt only in vague generalities." If he descends, as he has to do sometimes, into the terrible facts of it, if he has to open out the details of this horrible system, what do they say then? They do not report him then, but they say (I think I have the words somewhere that were said of a member of Parliament who touched upon it very slightly), "He revelled in the disgusting details of the working of the Acts." And so, in whatever way you discuss them, you discuss them to disadvantage; you cannot discuss them rightly for the opponents of the repeal of the Acts. Well, now let us see whether it is true that these Acts were ever considered by Parliament. It is a very startling thing to say, but I have known more than one or two Acts of Parliament passed through both Houses without a word of explanation being given of them. You heard that letter read from Mr. Henley, and there is no doubt that Mr. Henley did, at two o'clock in the morning, detect, with that keen perception of his, the real vice of this Act, and denounced it. But I have searched the pages of "Hansard" in vain to find any record that ever an explanation of the reasons why this Act was introduced, was given by Ministers before they introduced it. And when an official and an ex-official of a department (the one on one side of the House and the other on the other) agree between themselves that they will pass a certain measure through, and will only introduce it in the small hours of the morning, they can hoodwink the Government. There are only ten or a dozen members left at that untimely hour in the morning; an Act with an obscure title and very unsavoury details is not likely to be much criticised, and it would go through in Lord Palmerston's time with the greatest possible ease. I only looked the other day at "Hansard," to trace the progress of the Act of 1864. What do I find? I always find it at the bottom of the list for the day. I find: "Contagious Diseases Acts—First Reading." "The House adjourned at a quarter to two," in the very next line. "Second Reading." "The House adjourned at a quarter to two." "Select Committee." I think it was "The House adjourned at half-past two." I am satisfied that that Bill went through Parliament without one man in ten in Parliament knowing anything about it, or one man in ten thousand in the country, ever hearing of it until long after it became law. (Cheers.) Now, my right hon. friend stated, in his eloquent speech at Bristol, that these Acts were "smuggled" through the House, that there was a "conspiracy of silence," and I have told you my view of it. I indorse every word my right hon. friend has said, but I will give you somebody else's view of it—an opinion which I am sure everybody who knows the gentleman will say is not too favourable to us; I think on the contrary; if it had been possible for him, after hearing the evidence, to have made a different report, he would have done so. I hold in my hand the draft report submitted to the members of the Royal Commission by the Chairman of the Commission, after we had had forty-five days' examination of witnesses. It is a draft report, and is not a public document, but as I know

the facts, I conceive I am justified in placing the facts—I speak for myself, and say they are the facts—before you. He begins by stating that at the close of the session of 1864 the Royal Assent was given to an Act for the prevention of contagious diseases at certain naval and military stations. I am showing you that the Act of 1864 was only an initiatory measure, which its friends intended to follow up by larger measures, and which, if you will let them, they will follow by measures which will bring these Acts home to every door in England. You know that an important official of the Board of Trade has been to Hull, Liverpool, and the northern ports, to tell them how important it is that the blessings of these Acts should be extended to them; and it is to the vigilance of the people of this country that we must look to prevent that extension. Now, I say, at the close of 1864, the first Act was passed. In October, 1864, a few weeks after the Act had passed, and before it was in operation, mind, the Secretary of State for War and the Board of Admiralty appointed a Committee of eminent members of the medical and surgical profession, to inquire into the best mode of diminishing the injurious effects of certain diseases. These gentlemen made their report, and then came the Act of 1866 as a consequence. In the session of 1868 the House of Lords appointed a Select Committee to consider the Act of 1866. It did not go far enough; was still not extended enough; therefore, the House of Lords appointed a Select Committee to consider the Act of 1866. In the session of 1869, the House of Commons appointed a Select Committee to inquire into the working of the Act of 1866. The Committee of 1866 was to inquire into the working of the Act of 1864, before it came into operation; the Committee of 1869 was to inquire into the Act of 1866, and I will show you how prematurely they did it. The appointment by the Military and Naval Departments, almost immediately after the Act of 1864 had passed, of a medical committee to consider the whole subject of diseases affecting the services, seemed to imply that the Government had no confidence in the measure which they had recommended to Parliament. Now, I will go further, and we will see how far the Chairman indorses my statement and that of my right hon. friend, that these Acts were smuggled through Parliament. He states first what was done in 1864, and then he says, “The same precipitation which caused the enactment of 1866 is traceable in the report of the Lords’ Committee of 1868. They set forth that, of the twelve districts to which the Act applied, it had been fully tested only in one. The report was, in fact, incorrect in reference to Sheerness, the single place mentioned as an example of the complete success of the Act. If the disease was all but banished from Sheerness, such result was attributable, as will presently appear, not so much to the Act of 1866, and periodical examinations, which had only been very partially applied, as to the Act of 1864, under which the diseased women had been collected and sent to the hospital. Still more mistaken is the statement in the report that the decrease of disease amongst soldiers and sailors at Devonport when their lordships reported in 1868.” And he sums up in these words: “Thus it appears that every step in the progress of legislation on this subject since 1864, has been marked by carelessness and haste, and that the Act of 1864 has not been permitted a fair trial.” Well, it is quite true that the report was not adopted verbatim by the Royal Commission. It

was too damnatory of the whole scheme of legislation, but it was toned down and diluted so as not to condemn the Committees of the House of Lords and the House of Commons, but the legislation nevertheless was passed, and we are blamed if we say one word in public or private against this hasty, careless and precipitate legislation. (Cheers.) I think I have shown you now that it is quite true the Act was “smuggled” through; and why was it “smuggled” through? Why this “conspiracy of silence,” as my right hon. friend calls it so wisely? Was it that they were afraid of explaining what they were doing? Were they so resolved to carry out “the work of mercy,” as they call it? Were they afraid that the House of Commons would not sanction the reclamation of poor fallen women, or would not shield innocent women and children from consequences for which they were not responsible? Ah, they had no such thoughts in their heads when they initiated that legislation. The whole thing was sheer hypocrisy. The whole talk about the reclamation of women, and the shielding of innocent women and children from these consequences, was an afterthought. (Hear, hear.) The real reason for the Acts was to be found in a resolution which was submitted to me in a private note by the venerable, able and glorious man the late F. D. Maurice. He said, “These Acts were passed undoubtedly to provide safe incontinency for the army and navy.” They were introduced by Lord Clarence Paget and Sir John Pakington, the latter the first Lord of the Admiralty, under Lord Derby, and the former under Lord Palmerston; and this “conspiracy of silence” was carried out in order that our soldiers and sailors might indulge in vice with impunity. Now, my second point is that the Commission which was the only tribunal to which these Acts have ever been fairly referred, condemned these Acts. I want you for a moment to consider what was the constitution of this Commission. You know that, after the Acts of 1864 and 1866, an Act was passed in 1869. I think I should not be behaving with perfect candour and fairness if I did not tell you that I was in the House of Commons in 1869; that there were very few more constant attendants at the post of duty than I was, few that went so early and stayed so late as I did; and yet, I confess to you, I had no idea that one of these Acts was in existence until, long after the close of the session of Parliament, a lady, who is on this platform, called my attention to them. I believe they were passed in the last days of the session—in August some time—when we were wearied out with the work of the session, had given up our work, and believed it was ended. Now for the composition of the Commission. There were twenty-three gentlemen appointed to inquire into the working of these Acts, whether they should be amended, extended, or repealed. There were ten members of the two branches of the Legislature, four representatives of the bishops and clergy (one of whom, by-the-bye, too, was included in the ten just mentioned), six representatives of science (Professor Huxley, Dr. Bridges, Dr. Holmes Coote, Samuel Wilkes, G. E. Pagett, and T. Holmes), four special representatives (I may call them Sir W. James, Admiral Collinson, Mr. Hastings, and Mr. Applegarth). Now, these twenty-three sat, as I have told you, for nearly six months, and for fully forty-five days they were examining witnesses. At the outset of our labours, my conviction was that nearly, if not quite, twenty

members were favourable to the continuance of the Acts. All the indications were that the Acts would be sustained, amended, and, perhaps, extended. What was the result? You must remember we were entirely dependent upon officials, and upon Government for evidence. They had the whole of those who had had the machinery in their fingers for working the Acts before us; they assured us they were Acts of mercy—wonders of reclamation—almost that they were heaven-sent Acts. But what was the result? Day by day as we searched, as we cross-examined these witnesses, we found every witness to admit this: "You claim that you have done some good to the women; have you improved the men?"—"We cannot say that." "Is there less vice?"—"We cannot say that there is." "Is there more vice?"—"Well, perhaps there is?" And the whole evidence that came before us went to prove, that it was simply a State-regulated system of vice, stimulating and promoting vice, taking men to the districts for the practice of the vice, and breaking down the *morale* of the population. (Hear, hear.) Now, here is the result of the Commission; but, before I state it, let me say that within the last three or four days I have had an interview with the Chairman. I said: "Allow me to ask you—you brought in your report, which was a compromise really betwixt the total abolition of the Acts and the maintenance of the Act of 1864—do you believe, after the evidence that you heard, that that Commission, or any other Commission, would have reported in favour of the Acts?"—"I have no hesitation," he replied, "in stating that no Commission would report in favour of the Acts after hearing that evidence;" and I say, further, that I shall make that statement to the House of Commons whenever they come under discussion again. (Cheers.) Now, what was the result of our deliberation? We agreed—I am sorry, for my part, I ever did agree—to sign that Report. I always regret that we signed that compromise. I think those of us who were convinced that total Repeal was the thing, ought to have signed a separate protest, giving our reasons for dissenting from the report. But we did sign for this reason: we were told by the supporters of the Acts, that the keystone of them was the periodical examination; and every member of that Commission signed this report, the first recommendation of which is that the periodical examination of women ought to be discontinued. (Cheers.) That was signed by twenty-three (the whole) of the members of that Commission, and only seven out of twenty-three signed any dissent against that clause. Sixteen members of the Commission were unanimous for the discontinuance of the worst and vilest part of the Acts, that part which its advocates say is the very source and centre of its vitality. I am telling you these things, because you know we are "fools and fanatics," and they have statesmen and men of science on their side. (Cheers.) We will see who has the statesmen and the men of science. Of the ten members of the two Houses of Parliament, I believe seven were for the abolition of the periodical examination. Two of those members had previously been Vice-Presidents of an Association for extending the Acts. One of them has left, as the last act of his memorable life—I refer to Charles Buxton, one of the most excellent men that ever lived, who was himself Vice-President of the Association for Extending the Acts; he sat by my side, and I saw, day by day,

conviction entering his mind—he has left a strong individual protest against the extension of the Acts in any shape whatever, and showing, in the clearest possible manner, that the original diminution of disease was much greater before the Acts were introduced than it has been since. Well, then, as to the bishops and clergy who were members of the Commission. These were:—The Bishop of Carlisle, Canon Gregory, Dr. Hannah, and Professor Maurice. Professor Maurice was most earnest for total Repeal—(hear, hear); but all four of them, without protest, signed this recommendation for the abolition of periodical examinations. There were six men of science, and I will tell you what their position was. Two of them had been members of a preliminary Medical Committee that recommended the Acts. Well, was the balance of scientific men against us? Professor Huxley (one of the ablest men of science, one of the most capable to analyse evidence in this country) was the man in that Commission who contended more strongly than anybody else that the statistics were utterly worthless for the results attempted to be established by the advocates of the Acts. (Cheers.) Professor Huxley, Dr. H. Coote, and Dr. Bridges signed the recommendation of the Commission, and two of them—Dr. H. Coote and Dr. Bridges—recommended that the Acts should be entirely and unconditionally swept away. (Cheers.) The other four gentlemen—Sir Walter James, Admiral Collinson, Mr. Hastings, and Mr. Applegarth—all signed it; and three of them—Sir Walter James, Admiral Collinson, and Mr. Applegarth—were strong for the abolition of periodical examination. I believe Sir Walter James came upon that Commission believing it his duty to establish these Acts, but no man has made so strong a protest as he has. If it were possible to reveal—which it is not—the divisions that took place, and the resolutions and amendments that were moved in that Commission, you would see that some of these men who came on that Commission strongest for the continuance of the Acts, were the very men who turned round and despised the Acts, and wished them to be swept away. (Cheers.) Can it be said, when Parliament has appointed this Commission, when twenty-three gentlemen have sat for six months, hearing evidence, and sixteen of them recommended that the periodical examinations should be abolished—can it be said that we are out of our place and doing an improper thing in demanding that they shall carry out the recommendation of that Commission? \* With whom is the weight of scientific evidence? Then remember we had divisions in the House of Commons on this subject. We had two divisions, and a friend of mine who counted our numbers told me that although we were beaten in point of numbers, yet that the minority who voted with us represented two-and-a-half times as many votes as the majority who voted against us. (Cheers.) Well, then, as to the statesmen who are opposed to us. Let us see what statesmen are on

\* We would respectfully remind our distinguished supporter that the Commission, while recommending the abolition of "periodical examinations," recommended a return to the Act of 1864, of which the compulsory examination of women in the interests of unchaste men is the "keystone." We do not, therefore, demand that that recommendation of the Commission, which keeps the word of promise to the ear and breaks it to the heart, be carried out. We demand the abolition of every form of State-regulation of vice.—(Ed. Shield.)

our side, and then we will judge as to how we stand for statesmanship. In the last division—the only one Mr. Fowler was able to get upon his Bill—I find on our side one of the first statesmen of the day, Mr. Forster. (Cheers.) I speak of him with honour as your representative; and when my own mind in 1869 was wavering about this question, Mr. Forster satisfied me by a long discussion at the Reform Club, that these Acts were immoral, and ought not to stand. (Cheers.) In that division list are these names of members of the Government of the day—W. E. Forster, John Bright, James Stansfeld, A. S. Ayrton, G. Trevelyan, W. E. Baxter, H. Winterbotham, J. G. Lefevre (Secretary to the Admiralty), Lord F. Cavendish, J. T. Hibbert. Was the statesmanship on our side, or was it opposed to us? Look at names like these of Henry Fawcett—(hear, hear)—and Mr. Henley—Mr. Henley, whose predictions every time these Acts came before us were most striking, reminding one of the words of Milton—

“Till old experience do attain  
To something like prophetic strain.”

He speaks like an oracle; there is no man in England can be found to compare with him in his wonderful perception and striking common sense, and no man has denounced these Acts with so much fervour as Mr. Henley. (Hear, hear.) And, look at the names of such leading representative men as Baines, Cowper-Temple, Locke King, Dent-Dent, Dixon, Morley, Hodgson, Richard, Miall, Lawson, Leatham, Leeman, Newdegate, Pease, and Whitbread, and then say whether we are asking too much, that the House of Commons which passed these Acts in haste, which passed them precipitately, which passed them without the consent of the people, are we asking too much when we ask that they shall reconsider the whole question? (Cheers.) Now I have detained you long enough. My personal opinion is that this legislation is opposed to constitutional freedom, opposed to morality, and that its educational influences are of the worst possible kind. We all know what is meant by the educational influences of a law. We have upon our Statute Books many laws which are simply declaratory. We say, declare, that this shall be law, and it will have an educational influence upon the people and they will obey it. What is the educational influence of this law? It is to teach the youth of this country that continence is an impossibility to them. Will you teach it to your sons and say you will not teach it to your daughters? Are you aware of the ruin this will work if allowed to go on? I never think of the effect of this legislation in stimulating vice among our people, without feeling it is time people began to think of these things and to act upon them. (Hear, hear.) Well, the resolution said something about the degradation of women. When this is mentioned in the House of Commons, the answer to us is, “What degrades these women? They are so utterly fallen and degraded already, they can fall no lower.” Yet what is the argument they advance when they want to maintain the Acts? “Oh,” say they, “it reclaims women in the most wonderful manner.” One enthusiastic witness said that 90 per cent. of the women, simply through coming into hospital, being treated kindly, and coming under the influence of the doctors, were reclaimed; but I say women that can be reclaimed—women who are susceptible to kindness, are women not utterly debased, not utterly lost, not utterly

fallen. (Cheers.) Their argument is illogical—it won't stand. I say further, if these laws are to be maintained—I hope they will not be—why not apply them to both sexes? They are maintained for what purpose? They are maintained to protect the innocent and to prevent the ravages of disease. Just a word about the ravages of this disease. I obtained a Commission to examine into the condition of the factory workers of this country. A number of medical officers were appointed by Government to examine 10,000 children employed in factories—children, be it recollected, in unprotected districts. Well, they made certain statements as to the health and condition of these children, and they unanimously stated that there was a singular freedom from the effects of any hereditary disease—that these children were almost universally free from any taint of enthetic disease. (Hear, hear.) That, I say is better than any statement that can be made at random. I say, then, if these laws are to be continued, if they are to be continued under the pretext that they are for the protection of innocent wives, mothers, and children, in Heaven's name extend them to those that convey disease to the wives and mothers. (Cheers.) It is not the women that take disease there; it is the wicked men. (Cheers.) But if you are to put your finger upon the shoulder of a woman and say, “You have done wrong, and so you are spreading disease,” why not do the same thing to the man—put your finger upon his shoulder and register him too? (Hear, hear.) Let us have equality for both sexes. (Cheers.) And when you come once to get a majority of the House of Commons to pronounce for that equality, you may rely upon it these Acts are doomed. (Cheers.) It will be very inconvenient for members of the House of Commons to be put upon a register. (Hear, hear.) One word more I should like to say before I sit down. It is imputed to us who desire the repeal of these Acts that we wish to do away with the only remedy that has ever been found for the ravages of disease, and the extinction of prostitution. That is absolutely untrue. (Hear, hear.) Those who are advocates for Repeal came before the Royal Commission and made numbers of suggestions, which, if carried out, would not have been confined to naval and military stations; which, if carried out, would have comprised not only great numbers, but the whole of the people of this country, and would have dealt with the matter, not in the way of remedy merely, but in the way of prevention, which is of much more importance. (Hear, hear.) I say to you that we are prepared with remedies that would help to deal with this vice; but we shall never amend our people by throwing the shield of protection round the vicious, or by legalising vice, or the temptation and stimulation to it, among the youth of our population. (Cheers.)

Dr. J. BIRKBECK NEVINS (Liverpool), on rising to support the resolution, said: I come before you in two capacities this evening; first, as an ordinary citizen like yourselves, and, secondly, as a medical man, on behalf of many of my medical brethren. As a citizen, I can scarcely find words in which to express to you the loathing I feel for the Acts and the working of them, after the evidence that was given before the Royal Commission. (Hear, hear.) That has, however, been fully described to you by previous speakers; therefore, I shall devote myself for a few moments to giving to you, in as few words as I can, the results of some inquiries that I have

been engaged in, in reference to the statistics in the army and navy reports, for a period extending from several years previous to the passing of the Acts, up to the latest published reports. But, first, a word as to the position the medical profession holds in respect to the Acts. The members of this profession have been charged with being upholders of these Acts; and it has been said that if they had spoken out against them, the Acts would never have stood as they now do, on the Statute Book of the land. But what is the position of medical men? From the very first moment that their education commences, the cure of diseases occupies their chief attention; that is the object of their lives, and everything else is made to be subordinate to that object. The prevention of disease is the next thing; and if they can neither cure nor prevent disease, they try to do what they can to lessen the amount of it. Therefore, when any proposition comes before them which is said to be likely to prevent or cure disease, the first question with them is not, "Is it a moral proceeding, and will it interfere with the liberty of the people?" but, "Is it likely to lessen disease? Is it likely to prevent disease, or to cure it?" In respect to these Acts, there was at first a general feeling among the members of the profession—in which I acknowledge I shared—that their provisions were likely to lessen a very serious disease. Consequently, most of us have been watching to see the results of the Acts, being neither actively for nor actively against them, but being willing to see what the results of several years' experience would show as to the benefit of the Acts. Some of us, no doubt, have been actively engaged in attempting to extend the Acts, and some have been actively engaged in attempting to remove them. And why have we, some of us, been engaged in attempting to remove them? Because of the results—medically speaking—of the Acts themselves. (Applause.) In the first place, I may say that, of my own medical colleagues in Liverpool, one hundred and eight have signed a memorial against the continuance of the Acts, and in favour of their total Repeal; while, with great difficulty, twenty-six could be found to sign a memorial in favour of the Acts. (Applause.) I do not believe that at the present time it would be possible to get a dozen medical men in Liverpool to sign a memorial in their favour. (Hear, hear.) Then, with respect to the effects that the Acts have produced on the health of the army. The disease had been rapidly lessening for several years before the Acts were passed. (Hear, hear.) As soon as they were passed this lessening stopped, and has never since fully recovered. (Applause.) Never yet since the Acts were passed has the improvement gone on at the rate at which it was going on before. In one very serious form the disease has increased, and is still increasing. In the home station and in the Mediterranean station this form of the disease to which I refer, has doubled in extent since the Acts were passed. In the home station, at Plymouth, Portsmouth, and all the parts round about, this form of the disease has doubled; and in another station which is very well "protected," it has also doubled. In the Mediterranean station the most serious form of the disease has also doubled since the Acts were passed. There is no part of the world where there is so little improvement as in the home station, and those parts of the world in which there is no protection, are the very parts where there is the greatest improvement. The home

station, as I have said, presents the smallest improvement, and in no part of the world do the men recover so slowly from the effects of the disease, or, in other words, the disease is nowhere so severe as in the home station and the Mediterranean station. Where the Acts are most rigidly carried out, and where the protection is most powerful, there the men are the longest ill. (Applause.) And now as to the unfortunate women themselves, who are driven—and I speak advisedly, for they are driven—to the examination by the influence of terror. Mr. Sloggett, an inspector of hospitals, and one of the most prominent advocates of the Acts, said that there must be punishment inflicted on the women if they neglected to go to examination, because, unless they were compelled by terror, they would not go to examination. And can anyone wonder at it? They have to be examined, whether they are well or ill; they may have left their evil lives, they may have given up the practises or not, they have all the same to herd with all that is degrading every fortnight. If they fail to come to examination, whether they are well or ill, whether they have left the life or not, whether they have got married and are leading virtuous lives or not, they are sent to prison. At first it was for two months, without hard labour; but it was found that this was not punishment enough, and they are now sent to prison for three months, with hard labour. ("Shame.") Now what has been the effect on the health of these women since the Acts have been in operation? Every word of what I am telling you is taken exclusively from the army and navy medical reports and from documents issued with the authority of the Government, and it is a fact that the disease has increased among women by one-fifth—for every 100 women who were diseased before the Acts came into operation, there are 120 diseased now; and for one of these women who died before the Acts were passed, more than two die now. (Hear, hear.) The number of deaths among registered prostitutes has more than doubled. And yet we are told that in trying to obtain the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts we are trying to remove the greatest sanitary and moral benefit that has ever been conferred on the subjects of this country. (Applause.)

The Right Hon. JAMES STANSFELD, M.P., rose to support the resolution, and was received with loud and prolonged cheering. He said: It has been the policy of our opponents, having stolen a march upon us in legislation, to ignore the subject which we are met to discuss to-night; and since they have been compelled to pay some attention to our statements, so far as I have been able to perceive and to judge, the main faculty which they have developed has been that of misunderstanding what we say, or, at least, of only partially apprehending the views which we desire to put before the public. (Hear, hear, and laughter.) At a meeting at Bristol, a short time ago, speaking not only for myself, but for others, I endeavoured to define as accurately as I could the position which we occupy in regard to this question, and from which, I may say, we shall never stir. (Applause.) We based our position upon a threefold proposition—first, we say that the Contagious Diseases Acts are immoral; second, we say that they are unconstitutional; and, third, we say that, as a matter of fact, having been partially applied, as a law they are a failure; and that as a matter of necessity they would be still more a failure if they were applied to the whole of the country

—(hear, hear)—and for each and all of these reasons we demand their Repeal. (Applause.) Now, you have been told by my friend, Mr. Mundella, and most truly told, that these Acts were smuggled through Parliament—(hear, hear); and the first thing that we have to say with regard to them is this, that Acts which have been passed without the sanction of public opinion, and without that preliminary discussion which the laws of Parliament are intended to secure, can have no right claim on our obedience, and that those Acts, having been wrongly placed on the Statute Book, should be repealed. (Hear, hear.) When they are repealed, and not before—when we have a fair field for the discussion of the question—when we can have a *tabula rasa*, and begin afresh, then, and not till then, are we prepared to consider measures which a responsible Government may be wise enough, or unwise enough, to propose on the subject to Parliament and to the country. (Applause.) Well, now our three-fold proposition—because we can be contented with nothing less—must be reiterated until it is thoroughly understood. Hitherto, I must say, I have not found that it is understood. I have looked, as I said I should look, to the arguments of our opponents, so far as I have been able to discover them in the press, since the meeting at Bristol, and what do I find? I find that our opponents, to begin with, assume a scientific air, and that they seek to prove their possession of superior science by ignoring or despising morals, as if there could be a science of health from which morals were excluded—(hear, hear)—as if there could be any rule of life which science could lay down or which medical skill could invent, which could compare for a moment in hygienic value with the rule of a temperate and a moral life. (Applause.) I read in the *Saturday Review*, after the Bristol meeting, these words, that I had been waving a moral flag, and that I had chosen the reddest flag that I could find to wave in the face—I do not know whether the Reviewer said of the opponents or of the supporters of these Acts. (Laughter.) It is not easy to understand the point of the writer in the *Saturday Review*. I know and we all know the political meaning which attaches to the “red flag,” but if the *Saturday Reviewer* means to liken that red flag to a standard of morality, I will venture to suggest that that is a very poor compliment to constitutional Government on the part of so moderate and constitutional a journal. (Hear, hear.) If, on the other hand, my critic is of opinion that to raise the standard of morality, and to maintain that morality has something to say on the question of the physical health of our population, is like dangling a red flag before a bull, and exciting to unmeaning rage the population of the country, then I must say that the *Saturday Reviewer* appears to me to have a very poor opinion of morality, for a contributor to a respectable paper. (Hear, hear, and laughter.) But our critics go further in their assumption of the scientific rôle. We have been told that we ignore facts. Well, what facts have we ignored? I have ignored no facts. Those who heard me at Bristol will confirm me when I say that in arguing on that occasion, I accepted, for the moment, all the facts, I accepted all the statements, I accepted all the figures of our opponents—(hear, hear)—and I showed that, on their own showing, these Acts were a failure in the subjected districts, and I gave their own reason for that failure, and that reason was, that the Acts were

not universally applied. As my friend Mr. Mundella has told us to-night, there can be no possibility of a mistake on the subject. (Hear, hear.) It is perfectly well understood, and it is absolutely undeniable, that the Contagious Diseases Acts, as applied to the subjected districts, are merely an experiment; that they cannot be defended at all as a piece of final legislation, and that they will have to be either repealed, or extended to the whole population of the country. In my remarks at Bristol, I took these facts, and I said, “Let us imagine that this system is extended to the whole country,” and then I argued, assuming the greatest possible material success as being attendant on their operations—I argued in this fashion—that there is no specific disease consequent upon the vices of men, which can compare for one moment in physical evil with the degradation and the ruin of our race, which comes from a universal corruption of morals. (Applause.) And I argued further from the laws of human nature and from the experience of the whole of Continental Europe, that even the very lowest of humanity, whether man or woman, revolts against the indecencies of such a law; and that where such a law is applied it stimulates clandestine prostitution, and, without checking in the remotest degree the amount of specific disease, it begets a degraded and an emasculated race. (Applause.) I say that that is a broad and positive and comprehensive, but that it is, at the same time, a scientific proposition. (Hear, hear.) And I retort the charge of ignoring facts, and of a want of scientific knowledge on our opponents. (Applause.) It has suited their convenience to limit their short-sighted gaze to some miscellaneous facts which a few officials have collected for some half-dozen years within a certain number of naval and military stations in the country. That is no scientific procedure. (Hear, hear.) That is not a principle which would commend itself to such a man as Professor Huxley. Science does not build up its theories on such narrow bases as these; it seeks the widest area, the most multitudinous facts, the longest experience; and I will state, without fear—at any rate, if not without fear of contradiction, without fear of the possibility of disproof—that the experience of the Continent of Europe, not for half a dozen years merely, but for generation on generation, suffices to prove—to those, at least, who are willing to learn—that laws of this nature, which sin against morals, do not, in the slightest degree, promote the health of the population. (Applause.) On the occasion to which I have referred, I cited the Royal Commission as having reported against these Acts, as having advised her Majesty that there was no evidence before them that any physical benefit had resulted from the system of periodical examinations; and yet I was told by one of the medical journals, which had said that I ignored facts, that I also ignored the Royal Commission; and the same journal maintained that the report of the Royal Commission substantiated the beneficial, hygienic, and moral effects of the Contagious Diseases Acts. (Hear, hear, and laughter.) We have had a better answer to-night to that medical journal than anything I can say. We have before us a member of that Royal Commission. (Hear, hear.) He has spoken with an authority to which I cannot pretend, and he cannot fail to have convinced us—as, indeed, I think he must have convinced even the supporters of this legislation—that it did not meet with the approval of that Royal Commission of which

he was so distinguished a member. (Hear, hear.) Turning back to my critic of the *Saturday Review*, I find that he has a positive view of his own to propound, and he propounds it in these words:—"Governments with real responsibilities upon them, cannot regard life with this primitive straightforwardness—that is to say, merely from a moral point of view—but must be content to trust that what is really requisite for the health and security of the people is also most in harmony with Christianity and morals." I agree with the *Saturday Reviewer*, that what is really required for the health and safety of the people will always be found most in harmony with Christianity and morals. But the *Saturday Reviewer* has chosen to ignore a proposition of mine which is not the adverse of his own, but which is the complement of it—the converse proposition. It is not only true that the conditions most really required for the health and safety of a people will always be most in harmony with Christianity and morals, but this is also true, that nothing can conduce to the health or safety of the people which is not consistent with Christianity and with morals. (Hear, hear.) That is a proposition which it is, of course, possible to deny, but which it is not quite fair or decent simply to ignore. But our opponents affect to speak with the authority of a scientific profession which has a unanimous and an undivided opinion. Now, we have had evidence before us to-night, in the speech of Dr. Nevins, that that is a pretension which they have no right to advance. But though they are not unanimous, I am aware that army and navy surgeons have very often given evidence, from their narrow and exclusive experience, in favour of the Acts. But there is one man than whom few are more eminent in the medical world, whom I do not find the supporters of the Acts so fond of quoting. Before the appointment of the Royal Commission, an association was formed for the extension of the Acts to the whole of the population; and the Privy Council referred the subject of this proposal for the advice and report of their medical officer of health, Mr. Simon, a gentleman well known in the world of sanitary science, and who was transferred under the Act, which I was instrumental in passing, to the Local Government Board. Mr. Simon was not called upon to advise on the Acts with reference to their influence on the naval and military professions, but he was asked whether he considered it advisable to extend them to the whole of the civil population of the country. I hold in my hand the report which he presented in reply to that call. In it he exposes the inaccurate and exaggerated statements made by the Association created and sustained for the purpose of promoting the extension of the Acts. He shows what would be the enormous cost of carrying out the proposal; he shows the abnormal character of the arbitrary police regulations, which were absolutely essential even to the experiment which has been already made; and Mr. Simon reports against the proposition. (Applause.) And, although he is a scientific man, it does not seem to have occurred to Mr. Simon that it was any part of his duty to ignore the moral aspects of the question; for, I find in his report, that that the question is thus defined: "Whether the venereal diseases of the civil population are henceforth to be deemed matter of public concern; whether the civil fornicant may reasonably look to constituted authorities to protect him in his

commerce with prostitutes, is the principle which I conceive to be at stake." No man has done more—no man has done as much—for sanitary science in this country as Mr. Simon. For years he has been the confidential and trusted adviser of successive Governments on questions of sanitary legislation; but admirable as may have been the advice which he has from time to time tendered to successive Governments, never has he tendered advice more truly sound and admirable than that which I have read from these honourable pages which I hold in my hand to-night. (Hear, hear.) But we have other evidence of a difference of opinion in the medical world on the subject. We have the evidence of Dr. Nevins. Now, a most admirable and exhaustive document or memorial on the subject of the Acts has been laid before the Home Secretary, which is mainly Dr. Nevins's work. I believe the upholders of the system will find it very uphill-work to answer the statements and arguments of that memorial. Then, the other night, Dr. Nevins read a paper at a meeting of the Liverpool Medical Institute on the subject; and I say that the honours of that discussion undoubtedly rested with him. (Hear, hear.) And what followed on that discussion? At this moment, under his auspices, and with his aid, a National Medical Association for the repeal of the Acts is being formed among the members of a profession which ordinary medical journals, and which the wire-pulling medical contributors to most lay journals, pretend is united on the subject of this legislation. In Liverpool this National Medical Association is already formed to promote their Repeal. (Hear, hear.) I entertain the highest hopes of the good work which this Association will accomplish; it is for them to do that which it is easier for them to do than it is for us—to grapple with the medical details and statistics of the question, and to meet our medical opponents on equal terms. (Applause.) But I trust and believe that they will rise far higher than this merely professional function, and that, knowing that we cannot ignore morals as part of the science of health, and knowing the requirements of true scientific investigation, they will not be satisfied with the statistics of a few years, collected from a few subjected districts; but that they will appeal to the experience of generations over the whole continent of Europe, and will demonstrate, from a purely scientific point of view, this proposition, that no law which sins against morals can promote the health of the population; and they will show also, I believe, that when attempts of that kind have been made, humanity has reacted against them, and that not only has disease not been diminished, but physical disease and decay have been the consequence of such unnatural attempts. (Applause.) And now let me say something to-night upon the unconstitutional character of these laws. I am not unfamiliar with the laws of my country, either as a member of Parliament or as one who studied and practised the law in my younger days, and I will undertake to say that there is nothing in the criminal or police legislation of this country to compare for one moment with the utterly novel, arbitrary discretion and power that is placed in the hands of a centralised police for the purpose of enforcing these Acts. (Applause.) The ordinary principles of our criminal law are known to every Englishman. A person is accused of a specific offence, and that offence has to be proved against the person who is so accused of it. But what is the

law of these Contagious Diseases Acts? Any superintendent of police may go to a magistrate and inform him, not that a given woman is a prostitute, but that she has so conducted herself—for instance, that he has seen her in such and such company—as to give him, the superintendent of police, reasonable ground of suspicion that she is a prostitute. On that information, the superintendent can obtain a summons, and the woman will have to attend before the magistrate. But what do you think? Do you imagine that the superintendent of police is called upon to prove the guilt of the woman? Nothing of the kind. He has merely to prove that there was reasonable cause, in the magistrate's opinion, for him to have suspected her to be a prostitute, and that is his justification. Thereupon, reversing the maxim of our common law, that every citizen shall be assumed to be innocent until he or she is proved guilty of some specific offence, that helpless and unfortunate woman is called upon to prove a negative—to prove that she is not guilty, but that she is innocent of that of which she is suspected. ("Shame.") And if she is not successful in thus proving her innocence, what is the result? She is ordered to attend every fortnight at a given place, in order to submit herself to a surgical examination, which I cannot describe, but the object of which is, to ascertain whether she is fit for the market to which she is henceforth irrevocably doomed. I say irrevocably doomed, because, if she has not positively proved her innocence, she is indelibly branded with the name of prostitute in the register of vice. Now, I will try to bring this more home to your minds by an analogy. You all know the system of tickets-of-leave—that a person who is tried and convicted of an offence is set free before his term expires on a ticket-of-leave, but that he has to report himself periodically to the police. Now, suppose this system to be applied to men not convicted, but only suspected. In every large city there is a criminal class, as there is a prostitute class, but there are also classes just bordering on crime and bordering on prostitution—because poverty makes us acquainted with strange bedfellows—but it does not follow that every man or woman who is believed to be bordering on these classes must be engulfed either into the criminal or prostitute class. I ask you *men* to imagine and try to realize such a law, that, on the mere suspicion of the police, a man belonging to this border-class, who might be found associating with men who had no evident means of honestly gaining their livelihood, should upon that suspicion be had up before a magistrate, and should he fail to convince the magistrate that his life was innocent, be branded as a thief, and be bound for the future to present himself periodically to the police. But I cannot carry the analogy any further, because in the case I have supposed, the motive might be the prevention of crime, while in the case of the Contagious Diseases Acts, the motive is not the prevention, but the regulation, the promotion, and the State sanction of vice. (Applause.) And I cannot carry the analogy further, because there is no ingenuity, however devilish, which could inflict upon the person of a man indignities which could compare with the atrocities which are perpetrated on the unhappy women who are subject to these laws. (Applause.) But I will try to bring it still more home to your minds. My friend, Mr. Mundella, has nobly said, if we are to have these laws, at least let them be equal as between the

sexes. (Hear, hear.) And now imagine such a law. Picture to yourselves that the police should be directed to watch every man consorting with prostitutes or entering the doors of a brothel, that they should bring that man—be he high or low, rich or poor, let him sit on the magistrate's bench or on the benches of either House of Parliament—that they should bring him before the magistrates and call upon him to prove the purity and innocence of his life, or that, in default of satisfying the magistrate on that point, he should be branded as a fornicator; that his name and address should be enrolled on a public register, and that every fortnight he should have to go up to the surgical examination-room, in order that it might be ascertained whether he was in a condition to communicate disease to innocent persons. For, remember, no prostitute ever yet communicated the disease to an innocent man. (Loud applause.) I confess that, much as I view with horror the cynical, immoral conception from which these laws have sprung, I view with something below horror, with a sensation of sickening disgust—the hypocrisy of the supporters of the Acts when they prate about morality and religion; above all, when I remember that it is the men whom they refrain to touch who alone communicate disease to the innocent, and that it is through them alone that future generations, for whom these people pretend to have care, can be damnified. (Loud applause.) But above all other grounds stands, and will ever stand, the ground of the immorality of these Acts. (Hear, hear.) When I was at Bristol the other day, a pamphlet was placed in my hands, the title of which was "Christian, Moral, and Social Reasons for Approving the Contagious Diseases Acts." In that pamphlet I find a quotation from the *Lancet*, a medical journal very much devoted to this kind of legislation, and I searched a file of the *Lancet*, and verified the extract. These were the words which it contained: "This is no question either of morality or of sex; it is simply and solely a question of the responsibility to the public, which is implied in the avowed pursuit of a public calling." That is an accurate definition of the position and the views of the supporters of these Acts, and that it is precisely which, in the name of morality, we will never admit. (Loud applause.) Shame, shame, on this representative medical journal, speaking in the name of a profession which should be honourable, and seeming to liken that profession, which it ought to defend, to the calling of prostitution! (Hear, hear.) According to the view of this journal, prostitution is a profession, like the profession of medicine or of law; and as the State requires of those who practice medicine that they shall give evidence of their power to cure, so, in the opinion of this medical journal, the State should interfere in requiring from those following the profession of prostitution a guarantee, to be obtained at the public expense, that will enable men to indulge their vices with impunity. (Hear, hear.) I rejoice to think that the conscience and the religion, and the moral sense of the nation is at last awakening to the iniquity of these laws. (Hear, hear.) Their supporters must know—or they ought to know—that the religious denominations have memorialized and petitioned against these laws, but in vain. But I have the most confident hope and expectation—I may say that I have what amounts to absolute knowledge—that the denominations are not going to be content with the rebuff which they have received, but that, recognising

it as part of their duty as professors of religion and the guardians of the morality of the country, they will say, "This is no question of party politics, nor of ordinary politics; it is a question of morality, and on this we demand to be heard." (Applause.) And now one word about myself before I conclude. I do not like to speak about myself, but I think I have sufficient reason to-night. I have been told that mine has been a tardy conversion. It is no conversion at all. (Hear, hear.) I never was in favour of this legislation, but this is true, and I am not ashamed to confess it, that it is only of late years that I have addressed my mind seriously to the subject, and have become awake and alive to the deeper meaning, the hidden purpose, and the fatal tendency of these laws. (Hear, hear.) My mind first became awake to the subject after the passing, without one word of debate in either House of Parliament, of the Extension Act of 1869. Then came the appointment of the Royal Commission, and then to my own constituents I made this declaration: "As a member of her Majesty's Government, I hold myself bound to suspend—I will not say my judgment, but my action, until that Commission has reported. When that Commission has reported, I am prepared to undertake, not only to judge for myself, but to act upon that judgment." (Hear, hear.) I did judge for myself, and I did act on that judgment, because, as a member of Mr. Gladstone's Government, and of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, I voted for Mr. Fowler's Bill for the repeal of these laws. (Hear, hear.) But I do not disguise from you that it took time, that, occupied and absorbed as I was in public affairs, years passed that I now regret, during which men and women, now on this platform, were toiling amid obloquy and danger, which I now regret I did not share. (Applause.) I have this consolation, however, that what happened to me has happened to many others, and will happen to many more, and every day that I have pondered on the subject of this legislation has deepened my abhorrence and strengthened my resolve. (Applause.) I have given myself, as you know, unreservedly to this agitation; I have entered upon it urged by an imperative sense of duty, founding myself on an unalterable conviction, and full of a confident hope. I care not, and we care not, how long the struggle may last; the longer it lasts, the wider will be the issues, and the greater the moral triumph in the end. We will not count the sacrifices by the way, because it is the end which will repay us for all. (Hear, hear.) And when our labours have been concluded, and we look back on what we have done, we shall, I have a confident belief, look back with the conviction and the feeling that we have done much more than remove from the Statute Book an obnoxious and immoral law, because I believe that then we shall know that we have raised permanently the standard of morality in the public mind, and that we have at last succeeded in teaching that lesson of justice and of respect for women—of the equality of individual and personal rights, of the equality and mutuality of moral obligations in either sex, which in our view are an essential foundation of the dignity, the happiness, the vigour, and the virtue of a people. (Loud applause.)

Mr. Alderman REES, J.P., of Dover, in supporting the resolution, said that these laws were the most wicked and infamous that could well be imagined. He referred to the working of

the Acts in Dover, and said that women there were subjected to great annoyance by the police, and were liable, upon being seen speaking to a man, to be brought before a magistrate. Government spies paraded the streets, and the public places; and the same would be the case in Bradford if the operation of the Acts were extended to the whole country. The speaker gave several cases that came under his own observation, and read extracts from the magistrates' book describing the nature of the working of the Acts. He said, the returns by the governor of the prison, showed that there were several women in prison, for one, two, and three months, because they would not submit to be examined. He had no doubt of the ultimate result of the agitation, when such men as were upon the platform took the matter up. (Applause.)

The resolution, upon being put to the meeting, was carried unanimously.

Mr. J. EMONDSON (Halifax), moved,

"That the following memorial be signed by the chairman of this meeting on its behalf, and forwarded to the Right Honourable Benjamin Disraeli, M.P., Premier; the Right Honourable R. A. Cross, M.P., Home Secretary; the Right Honourable W. E. Forster, and H. W. Ripley, Esq., members for the borough; the Right Honourable Lord Frederick Cavendish, and Sir Matthew Wilson, Bart., the members for this division of the West Riding of Yorkshire."

The memorial, which, on account of the lateness of the hour, was taken as read, ran as follows:—

"That in the opinion of your memorialists, it is the object of the Contagious Diseases Acts, 1866 to 1869, to protect men beforehand from diseases which they voluntarily render themselves liable to contract by the actual commission of vice; and are, therefore, a species of insurance gratuitously provided by the State, against the risks incident to immoral indulgence.

"In the opinion of your memorialists such persons have no claim to such protection by the State, and it cannot be conceded to them without its becoming a help and encouragement, and, therefore, a sanction to their vicious practices.

"In the opinion of your memorialists all laws professing to afford such protection, not only encourage to greater indulgence men already practising the vice to which they refer, but they corrupt the whole nation by effectually teaching that, in the eye of the law, fornication is not objectionable on the part of men, and in women is objectionable only so far as they are in a condition to spread disease.

"That, on the aforesaid grounds your memorialists regard the Contagious Diseases Acts, 1866 to 1869, as grossly immoral in their principles and tendency, and they respectfully urge you to vote for the Bill for the repeal of the Acts to be introduced into the House of Commons during the next session by Sir Harcourt Johnstone, Bart., M.P., and to support the object of the Bill by every means in your power.

"Your memorialists are confirmed in this opinion and prayer by the flagrant injustice, and unspeakable degradation inflicted by these Acts on the women to whom they apply—an injustice and degradation which, in the opinion of your memorialists, no plea of the previous fallen condition of these women, nor of supposed sanitary advantage, can warrant or palliate."

The Rev. S. WRIGHT (Bradford), seconded the resolution.

Mrs. BUTLER supported the resolution, and in doing so said that if the patience of the meeting, in working for the repeal of these laws equalled their patience in listening, those who sought Repeal would be well repaid. Mr. Mundella had stated

that it was the first time he had spoken at a public meeting upon this subject; but it was not the first, nor the second, nor the tenth, nor the twentieth time she had done so. They were full of thankfulness that the best and choicest spirits of the land had come forward to speak for the cause; but, although that was the case, the women did not intend to abandon the cause. (Hear, hear.) Men had had the government of the world in their hands long enough, and a pretty mess they had made of it—(laughter)—and the time was come when women should do something. They would all require—both men and women—to work steadily, and in course of time the result could not be doubted.

The resolution was put to the meeting, and carried amid applause; and the usual vote of thanks brought the proceedings to a close.

## REPEAL ASSOCIATIONS.

THE SHIELD, also Tracts and Leaflets exposing the immorality and injustice of the Contagious Diseases Acts, and all information respecting the agitation for their Repeal, can be obtained from the following Societies:—

The National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Central Offices*—27, Great George Street, Westminster, S.W. *Secretary*—Frederick Charles Banks.

The Ladies' National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Sec.*—Mrs. Butler, 280, South Hill, Park Road, Liverpool.

The Northern Counties' League for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Sec.*—Henry J. Wilson, 255, Pitsmoor, Sheffield.

The Midland Counties' Electoral Union, for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Secretary*—Samuel J. Ainge, 4, Broad Street Corner, Birmingham.

The Friends' Association for Abolishing the State Regulation of Vice. Its Object—The Total, Immediate, and Unconditional Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Secs.*—Joseph Edmondson, Halifax; Arthur J. Naish, Birmingham; George Gillett, London; Barton Dell, Bristol.

The North-Eastern Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Secretary*—Rev. C. S. Collingwood, M.A., Southwick Rectory, Sunderland.

The Scottish National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Sec.*—Stephen Wellstood, 5, St. Andrew's Square, Edinburgh.

The Edinburgh Ladies' Committee for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Secretaries*—Miss Wigham, 5, Gray Street; Mrs. John Millar, 26, York Place; Mrs. S. Wellstood, 14, Duncan Street, Newington; Miss Wishart, 14, St. Vincent Street.

The Glasgow Ladies' Committee for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Secretary*—Mrs. Maclaren, 43, Buccleugh Street.

The Dublin Branch of the National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Hon. Sec.*—Rev. J. T. Wesley, 18, Grantham Street, Dublin.

The Cork Branch of the National and Ladies' National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Gentlemen's Committee*: *Hon. Secretary*—Scott Anderson, 5, Faulkner's Lane, Cork. *Ladies' Committee*: *Hon. Secretary*—Elizabeth Addey, 69, Patrick Street, Cork.

The Belfast Branch of the National and Ladies' National Association for the Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts. *Gentlemen's Committee*: *Hon. Secretaries*—Rev. Charles Seaver, 16, Botanic Avenue, Belfast; John Coates, Esq., 12, Abercorn Terrace, Belfast; Foster Green, Esq., Derryvolgie, Belfast; Rev. J. W. M'Kay, Donegall Square, Belfast; Rev. George Shaw, Wellington Park, Belfast. *Ladies' Committee*: *Hon. Secretaries*—Mrs. Patterson, 96, Donegall Pass, Belfast; Mrs. Ross, Wellington Place, Belfast; Miss Tod, 8, Claremont Street, Belfast.

N.B.—The English, Scotch, and Irish Associations alluded to in this list, are working together in perfect accord for the repeal of the Acts; and they have Committees and Correspondents in upwards of 600 towns in the United Kingdom. They earnestly invite further co-operation.

## Repeal Literature.

THE FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF SOME OF THE PUBLICATIONS ISSUED BY THE SOCIETIES FOR THE REPEAL OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS:—

*Orders may be forwarded to the Secretary, Mr. F. C. Banks, at the Office of THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE REPEAL OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS, 27, Great George Street, Westminster, London, S.W.*

N.B.—Most of the following Pamphlets and Leaflets can be had at a great reduction when large quantities are taken.

*The Publications marked \* are the most applicable to the present state of the agitation.*

### PAMPHLETS.

\* 1. A CRITICAL SUMMARY OF THE EVIDENCE BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION UPON THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS, 1866-1869. Prepared by Douglas Kingsford, Esq., of the Middle Temple, Legal Representative of the National Association during the Sitting of the Royal Commission. In Seven Chapters, as follows:—Chapter I.—Proof of being a Common Prostitute, and the Mode of obtaining such proof. Chapter II.—Voluntary Submission and the Magistrate's Order. Chapter III.—Periodical Examinations. Chapter IV.—Voluntary and Compulsory Hospitals. Chapter V.—Effect of the Acts on Venereal Disease. Chapter VI.—Certain Alleged Benefits Resulting from the Acts. Chapter VII.—Abuses under the Acts. Each Chapter can be had separately, Price 2d. each post free; or the seven Chapters, sewn together, 126 pages, 1s. post free.

\* 2. AN EXAMINATION OF THE WITNESSES AND THEIR EVIDENCE GIVEN BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION. By the Very Rev. Francis Close, Dean of Carlisle. 4d. post free.

\* 3. THE ROYAL COMMISSION AS A COURT OF JUSTICE; being an Examination of the Declaration of the Commissioners that "The Police are not chargeable with any abuse of their authority;" with Illustrative Cases. 3d. post free.

\* 4. A CONCISE STATEMENT of the Arguments Against the Contagious Diseases Acts of 1864, 1866, and 1869; including a Criticism of the Report of the Royal Commission. By Sheldon Amos, M.A. Price 3d. post free.

\* 5. THE EVIDENCE OF JOHN STUART MILL, TAKEN BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION. 2d. post free.

\* 6. "THE GREATEST MORAL HYPOCRISY OF THE DAY."—A powerful exposure of the wickedness and evil influences of the Acts. Reprinted from the 20th Annual Report of the Rescue Society. 2d. post free. (Pamphlet No. 7 should be read with this.)

\* 7. AN EXPOSURE OF THE FALSE STATISTICS CONTAINED IN PARLIAMENTARY PAPER No. 149, ON THE RETURN OF THE ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER OF METROPOLITAN POLICE, (1873). By the Managers of London Reformatory Institutions. 2d. post free. (This Pamphlet should accompany No. 6.)

\* 8. SPEECH OF WILLIAM FOWLER, ESQ., IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, ON THE SECOND READING OF HIS BILL, FOR THE REPEAL OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS, MAY 21ST, 1873. 2d. post free.

\* 9. MR. GLADSTONE AND THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS; or, An Exposure of the Bill of the late Government, known as "Mr. Bruce's Bill." By Joseph Edmonson, Halifax. 1½d. post free.

\* 10. THE INFLUENCE OF LEGISLATION ON PUBLIC MORALS Signed by Six Members of the Society of Friends, and Published for the Friends' Association for Abolishing the State Regulation of Vice. 1½d. post free.

\* 11. THE LIBERAL PARTY AND THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS. 1d. post free, or 9d. per dozen Copies.

\* 12. IMPORTANT TESTIMONIES OF EMINENT DIVINES, AND OF RELIGIOUS CONFERENCES AND SYNODS; IN SUPPORT OF ENTIRE REPEAL. 1½d. post free.

13. "AHOLAH AND AHOLIBAH;" and "MEN'S SINS AND GOD'S JUDGMENTS." Being Two Sermons preached in Salisbury Cathedral, by the Rev. Prebendary Fowle. In one cover, 1½d. post free.

14. PROSTITUTION: GOVERNMENT EXPERIMENTS IN CONTROLLING IT. Reprinted from the *Westminster Review*. 6d. post free.

\* 15. "THE NEW ERA;" containing a Retrospect of the History of the Regulation System in Berlin; the Repeated Opposition Directed against the system there, and the Causes of the Failure of that Opposition; with an Indication of the Lessons to be Learned from Past Failure, and of the Source Whence Hope Arises for the Future. By Josephine Butler. Price 2d. post free.

16. SURSUM CORDA. By Mrs. Butler. 2d. post free.

17. AN ADDRESS DELIVERED AT CROYDON. By Mrs. Butler. 2d. post free.

18. THE CONSTITUTION VIOLATED. Dedicated to the Working Men and Women of Great Britain. By Mrs. Butler. Bound in stiff cloth covers. 2s. 6d. post free.

19. AN APPEAL TO THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND, on the Recognition and Superintendence of Prostitution by Government. By an English Mother. 2d. post free.

---

## APPROACHING ANNUAL MEETING AND CONFERENCE OF THE MIDLAND COUNTIES' ELECTORAL UNION FOR THE REPEAL OF THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES ACTS.

---

THE RIGHT HON. JAMES STANSFELD, M.P.,

GEORGE DIXON, Esq., M.P.,

CHARLES H. HOPWOOD, Esq., Q.C., M.P.,

JOHN CORBETT, Esq., M.P.,

WILLIAM FOWLER, Esq.

(Late M.P. for Cambridge),

THE REV. GEORGE & MRS. BUTLER,

Have agreed to attend

### THE ANNIVERSARY MEETING

OF THE

## MIDLAND COUNTIES' ELECTORAL UNION

FOR THE

### *Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts,*

### ON DECEMBER 8th.

Other Members of Parliament, both Liberals and Conservatives,  
are also expected.

---

MORNING MEETING, QUEEN'S HOTEL, 11 o'clock.

AFTERNOON CONFERENCE, QUEEN'S HOTEL, 2.30.

EVENING, PUBLIC MEETING in the TOWN HALL, 7.30.

THE MAYOR WILL PRESIDE.

---

LONDON:—Printed by PEWTRESS & Co., 15, Great Queen Street, Lincoln's Inn Fields, W.C., and Published for the National Association for Repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, by W. TWEEDIE, 337, Strand, London, W.C., and F. C. BANKS, 27, Great George Street, Westminster, S.W. All communications for the Editor to be sent to 27, Great George Street, Westminster, S.W. NOVEMBER 25, 1874.

1876

## "TO BE FOREWARNED IS TO BE FOREARMED"

---

The attempts that have been made in our own State, and that are now making in New York and the National Capital, to license prostitution, call upon us to increase the efforts which prevented the enactment of the "Bill" brought before our own Legislature two years since.

The Protests sent to Harrisburg by our Society, by the Methodist Conference then in session at Easton, by our own most eminent physicians, and the friends of purity throughout the State, aided to prevent such action for the time at least.

By a letter from the Anti-Contagious Diseases Act Society in England, we are implored to increased watchfulness and activity to expose the utter futility and iniquity of legislation on behalf of this "License System," inasmuch as it is to be urged, as we are informed, on the State Medical Society to meet in Philadelphia this Centennial year.

Prof. That the community may be aroused to the importance of the subject, we quote at length from a pamphlet by the Rev. William G. Eliot, of Missouri, by whose efforts, aided by Lieutenant-Governor Charles P. Johnson and others, St. Louis, after a trial of two years, was redeemed from the scourge of licensed prostitution.

"We acknowledge the greatness of the evil against which society is called upon to contend. We sympathize with and would cordially help all those who, by fair and just means, are endeavoring to exterminate or even to lessen it. The vital question is, What shall those means be? For, not only may the remedy be worse than the disease, which is possible even in this extreme case, but, what is more exactly to the point in our present inquiry, the remedy may fail in its expected results, and may fatally increase the evils which it is intended to pre-

vent or cure. Our desire is, freeing ourselves from all mere sentimentalism and sympathetic prejudice, to look at facts with calm and judicial severity of judgment, so that we may reach an honest and just conclusion at last."

"The plain question is simply this: Is the regulation system calculated to lessen the amount of prostitution and the physical diseases which it creates to such a degree as to justify its adoption, notwithstanding its moral obnoxiousness, its gross partiality, and the many practical evils which are inseparable from it."

"In England it has received the closest attention, and the effort to extend to the whole civil population the 'contagious diseases' act, originally passed with sole application to the army and military stations, has raised such a storm of indignation throughout the land, and especially among the middle classes, as not only to defeat it, but, by reason of the knowledge of the whole subject now diffused among the people, to make it probable that the army act will itself be repealed.

"In France, particularly in Paris, where the registration and medical inspection system has been in operation for seventy-five or more years, the topic has been thoroughly and exhaustively discussed, both by physicians and police authorities, with such an amount of exact statistical information as to insure the most important results. The range which the discussion has taken includes all Europe, and goes back to the thirteenth century, but the Parisian experience is by far the most valuable, because it has passed under the eyes of scientific men, aided by the most thoroughly organized police system in the world. It has also had the advantage of being almost exclusively regarded as a *sanitary* question, free from the moral and religious considerations which have a preponderating influence in America and England. It constitutes, therefore, the principal court of appeal by which every system or theory can be tried, with the certainty of an intelligent verdict.

"The statistics of other European communities, however, aid us greatly in the inquiry. The 'regulation' experiment, in every variety of form, has been tried in Holland and Belgium, in Berlin, in Strasburg, in the cities of Spain, in Naples, in Copenhagen, and elsewhere."

"My purpose goes no farther than to examine the system by the light of experience (including our own brief trial of it in St. Louis) and by the known principles of human nature, of which experience, if fairly tested, is sure to give full confirmation. For short periods of time, and under peculiar circumstances, statistics may contradict, or seem to contradict, such

principles; but in the long run, and on a large scale, we are sure to find such uniformity of result as will vindicate the laws of reason and common sense.

"If we can look with diligent scrutiny at the facts, there is no conflict of testimony. It is given with different degrees of emphasis, but always, in all the cities and communities named, and in many others, and in all ages, with the same final sentence of absolute condemnation of all such systems."

"After a diligent perusal of a mass of documents, I am unable to find any justification of the experiment." "If it has not assured success to recommend it, it is an abomination absolutely without excuse." "If statistics had shown a marked diminution of disease to such a degree as to shield the innocent, the case would be different. Even then, the system has some features inseparable from it and from all registration and inspection systems, so atrociously vile, so partial and unjust, so subversive of all American ideas of personal liberty, so degrading to women and destructive of their self-respect, that nothing short of necessity could reconcile us to its adoption."

"A law such as this is a dangerous experiment, even when its execution is intrusted to the most conscientious and discreet men. If at any time it should happen to fall into the hands of the unprincipled and profligate, the most distressing results would be inevitable."

"In Paris, *where the registration system has been in force for eighty years*, the contagious diseases have increased to such a degree, *in all classes of society*, that the severest and most comprehensive measures are needed to protect the national health."

"In England the law is very severe and arbitrary, and as the soldiers, for whose benefit it was passed, are under absolute control, and the staff of physicians is chosen with great care, the opportunities for a faithful execution of the law have been exceptionally good, and far better than could ever be expected in this country. Yet the experience of all the districts named, as appears from the hospital and army records, and the registry of the prostitute population, shows a continued change for the worse. For these statistics we depend upon the carefully prepared publications of eminent surgeons and civilians."

"Dr. Wolfaston, Resident Medical Officer at the Royal Albert Hospital, Devonport, says:—'My opportunities for forming an opinion have been ample. I am opposed to the present acts because I believe they have failed to effect any material improvement in the health of the soldiers and sailors; that they have greatly increased clandestine prostitution (and with it disease among the civil population) and illegitimacy.' "But

we pass to the experience of the British troops in Bengal, where, under very different social circumstances, the same results appear; for in the army of thirty-eight thousand men the ratio of disease increased in a single year, under the pernicious influence of the regulation act, full thirty per cent., and precisely from the same causes of supposed safety."

"At the Hague, in Holland, Dr. Huet, Prefect of Police, says: 'You ask me if the laws of regulation work well for morality? I reply, no! Do they really diminish disease? My opinion is, no! no!' Such is the testimony of one who combines the qualifications for judgment of a surgeon and a prefect of police.

"But to the experience of Paris we must turn as the strongest authority, and it is here that we find the severest condemnation of all. I have before me a great mass of statistics which rest upon the authority of Duchatel, Lecour, Lefort, and others who have the sanitary interests of the city in their charge, and the testimony is all in one way.

"M. Lecour says:—'We see that by science we have not diminished but increased the evil.'" . . . "He sums up his general testimony as follows:—'All these results prove that prostitution is increasing, and that it is now more dangerous than ever to the public health. Has the action of the police been relaxed? No; on the contrary, it has more powerfully organized its means of repression, of surveillance, and of sanitary control. It has never been more active than now. The evil is a moral and social one, and cannot be controlled by the police, who can neither restrain nor destroy it. It must be overcome by moral, not by legislative means.'

"Remember that this is not the word of a 'sentimental religionist,' nor even a moralist. It is the careful and reluctant testimony of the Chief of Police, who regards the moral question only so far as it bears on the sanitary condition of the city under his control. It is an expression of despair after a long and systematic trial of regulation laws, with the best organized police force that the world ever saw. The distinguished French author of 'The Poor Girl of the Nineteenth Century,' who has devoted a whole life to the interests of the abandoned and forsaken, after going over the whole field of Parisian profligacy, exclaims, 'France is the Prostitute of Nations!'" . . .

"The whole system is singularly at variance with all American ideas, and will be more and more earnestly resisted or evaded every day." . . . "It is certainly a new thing in America that women should be deliberately held and treated as the instruments of man's pleasure, as if she were a lower grade of creation. The whole tendency of American thought has

been to elevate women, both in education and social regard; but here, all at once, we open a French chapter of history, and say, 'Men's self-indulgence *will and may* continue unrestrained, and women, as the weaker and more helpless party, must be subjected, "for protection of the innocent," to degrading sanitary laws.' I am persuaded that the whole system has in it an inherent injustice that Americans cannot long endure. I do not believe that it would stand in the courts one moment, if properly tried. It will have but short life in England, for the middle classes are there getting thoroughly aroused against it, even as an army act; but its life will be still shorter here. I doubt if any American Legislature has the constitutional right to confer such power over the person and freedom and domiciliary rights of citizens. But when we look at the partial application of the rule, which can be defended, if at all, only as a sanitary measure, and is therefore, by the nature of the case, equally applicable to both sexes, and can be effectual only when so applied, the whole thing stands, in our American eyes, as a legal absurdity and a moral outrage."

"It is an absolute truth, that there is no instance on record where the 'regulation' plan has worked well. Not one. Invariably it is the same verdict of failure, and on the lowest ground of practical usefulness, as a sanitary measure, it stands condemned."

"This Social-Evil system was established purely as a measure of health by those whose intention was undoubtedly good. But in their zeal for health and prevention of disease, they have not only made the most unjust discrimination between equal offenders, but have given legal sanction to that which the law condemns as a crime, and the conscience of the community denounces as a sin. The existence of such a system and its daily reported operation is an element of serious harm. But when we look more closely at its direct and indirect influence, we shall find that it invades, or threatens to invade, the sacred precincts of every fireside and home." . . . "A part of its intended 'benign effects' is to make it safe for married men, who have promised at the altar faithfulness to their wives, to violate that vow, whenever passion prompts them; and it does this under a pretence so insulting to the wife—"for the protection of the innocent"—that there are few women who would not reject with indignation all protection so obtained. The law steps in to help him keep his guilty secret, almost as if it involved no moral wrong."

"The entire view of human society, from which the 'regulation' laws proceed, is materialistic, low and sensual, and alto-

gether inconsistent with the maintenance of social virtue and truth."

"The system should further be opposed, not only on moral, but on broad constitutional grounds, as coming under the head of class legislation, and as discriminating in favor of the strong and against the weak. In some departments of legislation laws may be enacted which bear unequally upon men and women, for their political status is, in many respects, different. But so far as their rights are in common, as American citizens, they have, under the spirit of American law, an unquestionable claim to the same treatment, to the same protection and defence. Among such rights are personal liberty, the protection from personal violence, the right of trial by jury, and of conviction for crime before its punishment. These and other personal rights are sacred and inviolable, and are the same to man and woman, being entirely irrespective of sex.

"It may, however, be said that sanitary laws, having respect to the general health and for the needful protection of life, as permitted to transcend the ordinary bounds, and, under the necessity of the case, may invade the privacy of the domicile, to restrict the liberty of the citizen, and subject him sometimes to severe constraint. Granted; although, let me here say in passing, that such extraordinary powers should be used with great care, and intrusted only to well instructed and responsible men; for not a little tyranny is sometimes exercised under the shelter of Boards of Health. But whoever heard of sanitary laws to prevent the spread of an epidemic or contagious disease which are not applicable to all alike! If both sexes are equally liable to receive and carry infection and spread disease, is it not mere tyranny to discriminate between them? Can any proper interpretation of law and justice sanction that? Yet, in this case, men, who are the more dangerous party as to society at large, are permitted to go free, and women are subjected to personal outrage, to fines and penalties, to a restriction of liberty, to compulsory imprisonment in hospital, to special police supervision, and, in general, to a course of treatment such as no other class of citizens, however depraved, are compelled to endure.

"On this subject," says that admirable woman, Mrs. Josephine Butler, whose labors, together with those of Florence Nightingale, Harriet Martineau and others, have been so successful in opposing the English Contagious Diseases Act, "the testimony of Duchatelet is fearfully instructive, wherein he describes, in pages which it is almost impossible to read, the demoralization of the medical staff employed under this system. Respectable

men relinquished the office one by one in disgust, and the work was left to medical students of inferior grade and reckless character,—with results too painful to describe. Such must be the natural tendency, and, however successfully it may be resisted for a time, it would be here, as elsewhere, the natural result. It will be more and more difficult to induce men of successful practice and high moral worth to take the responsible duties which the system required.

“At whatever point we look, the regulation system, whether tried upon practical or moral grounds, stands condemned. It is wrong in principle and pernicious in practice. It increases and multiplies the evils which it seeks to avoid, and creates new evils of its own.

“We come back again, therefore, after the most patient and impartial examination of the whole subject that we are capable of giving, to the same conclusion in which Lecour, Chief of the ‘Bureau des Mœurs’ in Paris, declares himself to rest. ‘The evil is a moral and social one. It must be overcome by moral, not by legislative means. The battle must be fought on Christian principles, if the victory is ever to be gained.’” . . . . .

“Nowhere, as yet, although we are in the nineteenth century, has the Christian experiment of combined kindness and condemnation of sin equally in man and woman been tried, or even so much as deliberately proposed. It would probably, even now, after a complete failure of every other system, be pronounced chimerical and absurd. When we have exhausted all methods of quackery, we may come at last to the great teacher of humanity, Jesus Christ.”

A “British, Continental, and General Federation for the Abolition of Government Regulation of Prostitution” was formed in London, in 1875. This association “has been and continues to be the means of collecting a vast multitude of facts, and of laying bare the system in its true light; but whereas hitherto the advocates of State-sanctioned profligacy in England have pointed to similar systems on the Continent of Europe as working admirably and giving general satisfaction, this movement has been the means of disclosing the truth that the more the facts are inquired into the more it appears everywhere that the best and most thoughtful citizens deplore the moral and social evils which follow in their train, while the masses of the people groan under the tyranny and injustice towards the families of the poor, which are the inevitable results of placing arbitrary

power over women in the hands of the police,—a power, without which, it is confessed, the government regulation of prostitution cannot possibly be carried out.”

At a public meeting in Manchester, C. H. Hopwood, Esq., Q. C., M. P., stated that “the Contagious Diseases Acts were opposed to the spirit of English law, and alien to the feelings of the people. As the Acts were largely founded on the support of medical men, it was very important to afford the profession an opportunity of criticising them. The Acts contradict in point of morality the antecedent history of our country, they shock the religious feelings of the people, and violate personal liberty. These laws provide for the examination and virtual punishment of one sex for misdeeds which both sexes ought to answer for. The Acts employ Metropolitan police as spies—a thing abhorrent to the feelings of Englishmen.”

At a public meeting in London, an extract was read from an Italian lady's letter. Speaking of the horrors inseparable from the system, she said:—“The wrongs, the sorrows, the enforced depravity, *find no counterpart in any modern institution, slavery included.*” Referring to the horror of slavery as it existed on some of the American plantations, she said:—“I can truly say that no picture of the kind exceeds what I have seen and heard of this slavery, suffered by the victims in the great State-protected temples of lust.”

Can we need stronger testimony than is here given against the results of this abominable legislation? By reports from England, we find that our co-workers there are earnestly pursuing their arduous labors. “Vigilance Committees are formed in nearly every town in the United Kingdoms.”

The sympathy and interest in her mission shown to the noble and devoted Josephine E. Butler, during her recent visit to the Continent, leads us to believe that the pure in heart in all countries are ready to respond to judicious efforts to do away with all such demoralizing regulations as those which we have had under consideration.

MORAL EDUCATION SOCIETY,

Philadelphia, April 10, 1876.

### Ill-effects of Sulphuret of Carbon.

Dr. DELPECH, a professor of the Paris School of medicine, has recently published some important observations on the evil effects of the sulphuret of carbon and other noxious substances employed in certain trades. Sulphuret of carbon is a transparent, exceedingly fluid and highly volatile liquid, possessing a characteristic and disagreeable smell. It is one of the most dangerous substances known in chemistry, but unfortunately also one of the most useful. Its chief property is that of dissolving india rubber with the greatest facility, whence it follows that it is extensively used in the factories where that substance is blown into bladders for various purposes. The vulcanization of india rubber, that is, the operation by which it acquires the valuable property of increased elasticity and insensibility to a degree of heat which it otherwise could not bear, is chiefly effected by sulphuret of carbon, aided by chloride of sulphur, although it might be equally obtained in certain cases by sulphur alone. But the men engaged in this work are exposed to the effluvia of the sulphuret, which in a short time causes headache, vertigo, and an over-excitement of the nervous system. The patient talks with great volubility, sings incoherently, or laughs immoderately, or else hides himself and weeps. This state may even lead to insanity, and at all events will cause obtuseness and imbecility. To obviate these serious effects, Dr. DELPECH recommends a glass screen to be placed between the workman and his table, leaving two holes for the hands and arms; these also are to be protected by ample sleeves of waterproof stuff. Another hole is to be left for the nozzle of the bellows, which they use for blowing the india rubber into balls. These precautions, Dr. DELPECH thinks, ought to be enforced by the authorities. The remedy to be employed for the cure of the patient affected by the sulphuret is phosphorus taken internally. Enamellers, and those who use arsenic for artificial flowers, may be protected in a similar manner. For my part, as far as arsenic is concerned, I do not see why it should be used at all, since it is not only hurtful to those who make the flowers, but also to those who wear them.

*working in aniline colors,  
(mercuric) socks dyed with them*

one symptom

in the other.

James H. C., private in Co. C, and Spencer private in Co. I, on the morning of Sept. 25th, were found in a state of total insensibility. Nothing peculiar or strange in their manner was noticed by their comrades on the day or evening previous. Their comrades who occupied the same tent noticed nothing unnatural until they attempted to waken them in the morning, when it was found that they paid no attention when spoken to however loud, or moved a limb or muscle when shaken, however briskly. A doctor was sent for, and went to the quarters of the first named, and found him in a state of general insensibility. The power of voluntary motion was wholly lost; he did not move a limb or muscle at will; his eyes were open and perfectly natural, so very natural indeed, that it was difficult to believe that the senses of hearing, voluntary motion, and sensibility could be suspended. The pupil was not dilated, and it was sensible to light, dilating and contracting according to the degree of impinging light. The eye followed an object a considerable distance, and closed quickly when a motion was made to strike at it. The temperature of the body was natural, or perhaps a little higher. Skin moist and perspiring. The pulse was about eighty in the minute, regular, strong, and moderately full. The countenance was placid, features not indicative of alarm. He was seen by several medical officers who had different opinions as to whether there was real or feigned loss of hearing, motion, and sensibility.

Here our attention was called to the second case which corresponded in every particular symptom with the former; and what was believed probably feigned was now believed to be real in both.

They were removed into the Regimental Hospital, and efforts were made to induce reaction, or rather restitution—for there was no depression, rigor or congestion—by means of stimulation with carb. ammonia and quinine, and blisters were applied to the cervical and dorsal portions of the spine. For thirty-six hours from the attack there was not the slightest momentary perceptible change in either, not a limb or voluntary muscle was moved in this time by either voluntary, spasmodic, or convulsive efforts, except those of the eye which could be opened and closed at will. Beef extract was given, and the pulse became more feeble in this continued state of insensibility. The urine was voided involuntarily. The abdominal viscera being dormant, two drop doses of ol. tigli were ordered to be given at an interval of thirty

Pule, India milk

Brusuph. Carbon

Upon the page of a recent number of a German scientific journal is revealed a chemical reaction connected with picric acid, which interests us as women.

This is the production of a chemical precipitate, lead picrate, upon silk while passing through the dyer's vat—a process for which I have no English word—the technical German word being "*schweren*," which may be translated "the making heavy" of silks.

It affords a solution to a mystery which of late has perplexed perhaps more than one woman before me: the mystery of the transformation of a silk, stiff and rich in texture and appearance as shown on the store counter, but marvellously cheap for the quality as you thought—a transformation which occurred possibly before the dress-maker had bestowed the finishing touches and which rendered it limp and cheap-appearing.

This precipitate deposited upon the threads and filling the interstices of the goods, designed to deceive the purchaser as to true quality, might after the first annoyance of your disappointment, be passed with a smile as a good joke not to be perpetrated a second time were the weary fingers that toiled over the silk and the lungs of the needle-woman who breathed in the poisonous particles which permeated the air about the goods as handled, not to be taken into the account.

A knowledge of these toxic possibilities lurking on every hand in our pampered and luxurious lives, in the wall papers which adorn our homes, upon the toys of little children, in the bon-bons, in the brilliantly dyed ribbons and tarltans, in the sewing-silks which the needle-woman threads in her needle, a knowledge of all this, such as can only be gained from a chemical standpoint and by a chemical student will be a power for good in your hands in the near future.

from the condition of our civilization have been viewed from the chemical as distinguished from the physical standpoint.

R. Angus Smith, who has been the distinguished leader in these investigations, has devised ingenious methods for detecting the solid matter suspended in the air and has been most indefatigable in his researches, which have yielded some curious as well as valuable results.

The waning day reminds me that this record, already too long, must close. I heed the warning as I make grateful reference to the fact that during the past seven years Chemistry has been awarded in the best Medical Schools throughout the land a place of importance never before conceded to it.

The department of Medical Chemistry now lends attractiveness to the curriculum of the schools in which it is erected, and experience has proven that cultivation of no other field has yielded a larger dividend to Colleges or their Alumni.

The researches of each succeeding year widen the possibilities and enhance the value of such toil.

The sub-department of Zoo-Chemistry is rapidly assuming the position its importance demands. The analysis of the Urine, of serous transudations and other animal fluids grows in significance to the medical practitioner day by day; and just here an instrument, in the use of which the ladies of our College under their gifted instructor are developing an aptitude, looms up as of the last importance.

Without the compound microscope, improved and perfected as it stands to-day, Animal Chemistry, in its present attainments, would not be possible.

Gorup-Besanez, in the introduction to his admirable work, entitled "A

Poison or Silk

Arsenical poisoning is not only met with in factories where the mineral is used in large quantities, as in the fabrication or application of green pigments or dyes colored with the arsenite of copper, known as "Scheele's green," but not infrequently comes home to us in various ways. The green dye of a belle's gauzy ball-dress may give out enough arsenic to sicken two or three seamstresses; green carpets or furniture coverings may contain dangerous doses of it; but its commonest lurking place is in green wall papers, some of which hold as much as 30 grains of arsenic to every square foot. In as small a quantity as 100 grains of dust from a room thus papered 2-10 of a grain of arsenic have been detected by analysis, and if you think of the myriads of dust-motes, which a sunbeam shows dancing in the air of every room, you may imagine how much of the poison can be inhaled in the course of a week or so in solid bulk, to say nothing of the doses that are taken in volatilized form. To such chronic poisoning are traceable many obstinate cases of dyspeptic, catarrhal, and eruptive diseases, which resist all remedies short of change of air, or, what amounts to the same thing, change of wall paper. These arsenical greens are easily unmasked by means of a little ammonia and nitrate of silver. A drop of spirits of hartshorn dissolves the partnership between the arsenic and the copper, changing the green to a blue tint, and the subsequent addition of a minute quantity of lunar caustic, either in a strong solution or in powder, instantaneously gives a deposit of the yellow arsenite of silver. This very simple modification of what is known as the ammoniated silver test was suggested to me by Dr. Mosher, of the Quarantine Department, and in addition to its domestic availability has the advantage of being applicable to a fragment of paper no larger than one's finger-nail, or may be tried in a corner of a papered room without disfiguring the wall. The specimen which I have here contains  $29\frac{1}{3}$  grs. of arsenic to the square foot; this lighter one has nearly 9 grs. to the foot, and is of a kind often employed to wrap up sugar-plums, and consequently to find its way into children's mouths. Even the sugar-plums themselves are sometimes delicately tinted with arsenic green, lead yellow, and other mineral poisons, and the green-painted toys with which babies occasionally sicken themselves by sucking, almost invariably contain arsenic. I may add that arsenic in less quantity often enters into the composition of papers of various shades of grey and mauve.

Dr. Alfred L. Carroll  
Sanitarium - Dec. 1752

in a room 18 feet square, at 8 o'clock in the evening, but 25 were living the next morning. Ordinarily, in our day, the poison is imbibed in smaller doses, and its influence is more insidious. Every one knows how often the air serves as a vehicle for the transmission of some contagious disorders, such as small-pox, scarlet fever, measles, etc.

But the worst—and, unfortunately, the commonest—of our household enemies is “sewer-gas,” which is the general name for the collective vapors arising from decomposing organic refuse pent up in sewers or cesspools, with just enough air and moisture to favor putrefaction, but not enough to fully oxidize or wash away the noxious mass. This gas, or rather I should say these gasses—for the compound contains sulphuretted hydrogen, sulphide of ammonium, carbonic acid, ammonia, and other deleterious ingredients—finding entrance to our houses, not only may bring in company the specific contagion of certain maladies, but may generate them *de novo*. Very many, if not the majority, of thoughtful hygienists are inclined to attribute the origin of diphtheria to “excremental pollution of respired air,” and of the power of sewer-gas to cause typhoid fever independently of any pre-existing specific infection, every practical physician has abundant proof, Professor Tyndall (who is not a physician) to the contrary notwithstanding.\* To describe the various forms of illness arising from different degrees of blood-poisoning with these mephitic vapors, would require a separate lecture. Suffice it to say that fatal exhaustion has been produced in animals by the continued respiration of air containing but a fraction more than 1-500 part of sulphuretted hydrogen alone, and that death speedily follows the inhalation of one part of this gas in 233 of air. Men can breathe a larger percentage without immediate death, but not without serious disturbance of health. Concerning the effects of sewer-gasses upon man, the report of a scientific commission, appointed to examine the sanitary condition of Liverpool, says: “We regard the prevention of the entrance of sewer-air into houses as an object paramount to every other in importance, for it is a matter of general medical experience that even a fractional contamination of the air of a sleeping room is almost certain to produce disease, sooner or later.” The plumbing arrangements of most of our houses are admirably calculated to ensure this entrance of sewer-air, which our usual plans of

Sewers if prop-

CASE OF CHRONIC ARSENIC POISONING.—HOLM, in the *Upsala läkareföören förhand*, describes a dozen cases of arsenic poisoning from the wall-paper, lamp screens, and curtains of dwelling-houses. In these cases the etiology was evident, and the symptoms very distinct and characteristic. The latter were chiefly the following: headache, with a sensation as of a ligature tightly embracing the head; giddiness and fainting; occasionally a faltering gait and a fog before the eyes; the latter were often red and painful; nausea, occasionally vomiting, especially in the morning. Frequently the appetite was bad, the tongue furred, and there was constipation. The sleep was often disturbed by dreams. There was general sinking of the corporeal and mental strength; dulness of the memory and of the power of thought. The appearance was cachectic, and there were occasionally tremors and nervous weakness. It happened pretty constantly that the symptoms rapidly disappeared when the poisoned room was vacated for a while, or the arsenical substances were removed; they rapidly returned, however, when the patient reoccupied the room. Poisoning also occurred where arsenical paper had been covered over with paper that was free from this substance, or where the arsenic was present in oil colors. The author is of the opinion that arsenic is present in the air of such rooms in the form of arseniuretted hydrogen, and that it is more probably absorbed into the human body by way of the skin than by the respiratory organs.—*Nordiskt Med. Arkiv.*, 6 No. iii.

Hygiene

finally resists  
of the trachoma in the opacities of the cornea—for the  
keratitis which caused this was induced by the pres-  
sure of roughened lids on the cornea—and if you  
look at the eyelid you will see another consequence;  
you will see that the eyelid fits over the eyeball too  
tightly to give free space for the eyeball to work  
beneath the lids; you will see a little shortening  
of the palpebral fissure, and shrinking of the car-  
tilage—you can see that without turning the lids at  
all. The conjunctiva is the mucous membrane which  
lines the lids and covers the front of the eyeball. It  
is a mucous membrane very richly supplied with ves-  
sels and nerves. In that portion of the conjunctiva  
that we call the palpebral, that is the portion that  
lines the lids, are numerous furrows, which might be  
represented by little lines like those on the blackboard.  
It also has little elevations, called papillæ, but when  
you turn to the ocular conjunctiva, that which covers  
the eyeball, you find none of the papillæ. This mu-  
cous membrane, so richly supplied with nerves and  
vessels gets easily inflamed. How? By exposure to  
cold; by getting the feet wet, and so forth; a man works  
in the dust and the dust gets into his eyes, and if not  
thoroughly removed it irritates the nerves of the con-  
junctiva and causes catarrhal conjunctivitis. What is  
catarrhal conjunctivitis? It is inflammation of the con-  
junctiva which creates an increased secretion of mucous  
and lachrymal fluid, and such a patient has watering

---

\* Travels in Africa, page 15, New York, 1853.

THE KING OF SWEDEN, it is reported, has recently been suffering under a dangerous illness, caused by the use of a certain "hair restorer," which according to the chemical analysis of the royal physician, contained a large proportion of oxide of lead—a salt most injurious to the human system. In consequence of these supposed dangerous effects, a sanitary commission has been organized by the King, to sit at Stockholm, and pass judgment upon the cosmetic.

throughout the list, with an upward tendency  
prices. Old Tennessees left off at  $70\frac{3}{4}$  a  $\frac{1}{8}$ ;  
do.,  $70\frac{3}{4}$  a  $\frac{1}{8}$ ; old Virginia,  $68\frac{3}{4}$  a 70; new  
72 a  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; Missouri 6s.  $95\frac{1}{2}$  a  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

The railway and miscellaneous shares were  
generally active, with Erie and Lake Shore  
the chief features. The closing prices in  
most cases were up to the best figures of the

Pacific Mail,  $45\frac{1}{4}$  a  $45\frac{3}{8}$ ; Western U. Tel.,  $59\frac{1}{8}$   
 $\frac{1}{4}$ ; New York Central and Hudson Con.,  
 $98\frac{1}{8}$ ; do. Scrip,  $93\frac{1}{4}$  a  $93\frac{3}{8}$ ; Reading,  $113\frac{1}{4}$   
 $\frac{1}{8}$ ; Michigan Southern,  $108\frac{1}{2}$  a 109; Erie,  
 $88\frac{1}{8}$ ; Northwestern,  $85\frac{1}{4}$  a  $85\frac{3}{8}$ ; do. Pref.,  
 $107\frac{1}{4}$ ; Rock Island,  $114\frac{1}{4}$  a  $114\frac{1}{2}$ ; Toledo

METALLIC POISONING.—A recent report of the New York Board of Health states that the cases of lead poisoning in the trades of that city are not so numerous as has been supposed, the deaths from this cause between 1852 and 1873 being 228, of which 48 occurred in 1852 and only 5 in 1872. An inspection during 1872 of nearly 1500 men, women and boys at different establishments, did not disclose one case of lead poisoning. Six or eight persons complained of occasional colicky pains and weakness of the wrist, but there were no marked cases of lead paralysis. In the Dispensary for nervous diseases in New York there were in 1871 only 12 cases of this disease, and the patients were chiefly painters. It is stated that type setters and stereotypers are more free from metallic poisoning than any other workers among lead. An inspection of establishments for fancy printing showed that the inhalation of bronze powder produced pulmonary diseases, and that the irritating effects of metallic powders caused frequent attacks of bronchitis. In one establishment the bronzing is done by machinery, and a vacuum is formed underneath such machinery by which all the loose particles of bronze are drawn into a box and thence into a bag. By these means 2400 pounds of bronze were saved in one year. This large quantity saved shows the large quantity of metallic dust thrown out into the air surrounding the employes in establishments where the vacuum box is not used.

Also, a large building on Third st. above Green, with Machinery, &c.; would suit sewing machine or other light work.

Also, a large Cotton Mill, with extensive out buildings, Machinery, &c., in the city proper.

2t\*402

D. T. PRATT, 727 Walnut street.

# PERSONS WANTING CHEAP HOUSES

read the prices and see the properties:

Splendid side yard Residence, Eighteenth, near Master, healthy and elegant location...\$9,000

Twelfth and Thompson, valuable business corner, old-established Bakery, will now sell for.....

829 Race, Store and Dwelling..... 8000

258 N. Eleventh, with office front..... 9500

528 Buttonwood, 25 ft. front, splendid order... 7500

1793 N. Eighteenth, Cottage style..... 7000

914 N. Ninth, lot 18x100 to back street..... 5000

1908 Brandywine, 8-room Cottage..... 4000

805 Duane st., 7 rooms, central..... 3700


1317 Atmore st., 10 rooms, cheap..... 2700

2837 Herman st., will sell for..... 3000


Self-inking Printing Presses for \$55. 1300


smw3t\*349


W. C. EVANS, 50 N. Ninth st.

 "OCEAN HOUSE," CAPE MAY, FURNISHED AND EQUIPPED, FOR SALE. IF NOT SOLD BY MAY, WILL BE RUN NEXT SEASON AS USUAL BY H. W. SAWYER.

\*400 DAVIS & SIMPSON, 711 WALNUT ST.

 \$6700.—MODERN FURNISHED 11-ROOM Suburban Residence, at a sacrifice; large lot two-thirds may remain; street and steam cars. Inquire at McKINNEY'S, 16 North Seventh st. \*335

 FOR SALE—STORE AND DWELLING No. 1640 Fitzwater street; lot 16 by 80. Apply to the Owner, on the premises. \*302

 FOR SALE—2139 CALLOWHILL ST.; lot 18 by 140 to back street; all conveniences; Only \$9000, clear. JAMES E. CLARK, smtu\*153 53 North Tenth street.

 FOR SALE—THREE-STORY BRICK Dwellings, 937 North Tenth street. HORACE FRITZ, 713 Walnut st. 2t\*586

FOR SALE, 640 SOUTH ELEVENTH ST. See it and hear the price; six rooms \*86

ABLE

**THE HOURS OF LABOR.**—Through the manufacturing districts of the North of England an important movement has been started for the further reduction of the hours of labor. The maximum time in the factories allowed by law is sixty hours a week, of which ten hours and a half are appropriated to the first five days of the week, and seven hours and a half to Saturday. It is now proposed to reduce the weekly time to fifty-eight hours a week, by stopping on Saturday at noon, instead of at two in the afternoon. The argument used in favor of the reduction of time is, that the machinery now employed could be driven at greater speed, and that the productive power would thereby be increased. At a large meeting held at Preston it was asserted that since the passage of the "Ten Hour" bill in 1845, the speed of the power loom has been nearly doubled. It was stated that as regards the article known in the trade as  $8\frac{1}{4}$  pound India shirting, a weaver can now produce thirteen or fourteen pieces a week, against seven or eight during the former period. It is, therefore, argued that a further reduction of time would be attended with a greater productive power, that is, the looms might be driven much faster and the weavers could attend to their work without being exhausted by continuous labor. Under the present ten-hour system it is asserted that the female operatives after work hours are unfit to attend to their domestic labors. It is stated that the "ten hours" act placed factory operatives in 1845 in a more favorable position in respect to the hours of work, than men engaged in the miscellaneous skilled trades. During the last twenty-five years the skilled operatives have succeeded in reducing their period of labor much below ten hours, and consequently the factory hands have now the longest hours of work, and consequently are endeavoring to obtain a reduction.

## N CENTS PER WEEK.

[Special Despatch to the Public Ledger.]  
**FROM WASHINGTON.**

WASHINGTON, April 27.

### MERCHANDISE IN BOND.

Rules and regulations were to-day issued by the Acting Secretary of the Treasury for the transfer of merchandise in bond from one car to another, in case of difference in width of stages of connecting railroads, transporting reported goods without appraisement. This will give the Erie and Baltimore and Ohio railroad the privilege of competing in the transportation of goods without appraisement from the seaboard to the inland ports of entry.

### THE PRESIDENT

will return to Washington by the early train tomorrow, and will give a State dinner to the Diplomatic Corps and Joint High Commission Saturday evening next.

### CONSCIENCE CASE.

Rev. James Croke, Vicar General, rector of Mary's Cathedral, San Francisco, California, has sent \$250 to Treasurer Spinner for the Conscience Fund, on account of one of his prisoners.

### THE NOTE PRINTING BUREAU.

In consequence of an arrangement agreed on by the Secretary of the Treasury, it will not be necessary for Mr. McCartee to discharge from the Bureau of Engraving and Printing as many as 160 employes next Saturday, as was determined on. The discharge may not be less than half that number.

WASHINGTON, April 27.

### THE LEGAL-TENDER QUESTION.

It has already been stated that the decision of the Supreme Court in regard to the legal-tender cases, will be announced on Monday next, and it is now positively ascertained that the opinions of the majority and minority of the Court will not then be read, but will be reserved for the adjourned term, which commences on October 16th. It is understood, however, that an elaborate opinion will be

wea  
plea  
bill  
indl  
set f  
dece  
Se  
ney  
scir  
to c  
rive  
Se  
pre  
Dis  
day  
we  
in  
I  
gre  
pa  
I  
hor  
tive  
as  
by  
dell  
pos  
Se  
1868  
of  
per  
for  
me  
fe  
m  
in  
ma  
ro  
ral  
as  
M  
21s  
wa  
H  
Ele  
the  
of  
Ele  
an  
I  
all  
M  
tu  
ex

POISONOUS DYES.—It is well known that the beautiful aniline colors are obtained by the aid of arsenic ; the excess, however, Dr. Nowak states, may be removed from the finished material when the process is carefully conducted. When such precautions are not observed, and the coloring matters are used for confectionary and the like, disastrous results may follow. There has been less reason for anxiety about textile fabrics dyed with aniline colors, because of the very small quantity required to color silk and woollen materials, the arsenic being thus very much diffused, and the goods, moreover, losing any excess in the subsequent processes of washing, etc., by which they are prepared for market. This is not always the case, however, and the explanation of the occasional presence of dangerous quantities of arsenic is the following : Woollen and silk readily take the dye from the aniline solutions, but vegetable substances, such as cotton and linen, require previous preparation to enable them to do so. For this purpose a mordant is used, in this way : They are dipped into a solution containing clay and arsenious acid, which makes them capable of retaining the aniline colors, though at the same time it makes them highly poisonous.—*Rundschau*, April 12, 1875.

TREATMENT OF CHOREA BY ARSENIC IN LARGE DOSES.—Dr. Eustace Smith, in a note to the *British Medical Journal*, of May 1st, 1875, emphasizes the

... and musical murmurs are almost invariably intra-ventricular. The intra-ventricular murmurs are termed functional, because due to irregularities in the heart's rhythm and not to valvular changes. Yet they occur in organic disease as well as in the so-called functional cardiac affections. They are believed to constitute a large majority of the morbid sounds in structural diseases of the heart, where they arise in consequence of the irregular tension of the tendinous cords produced by changes of structure. Where the intra-ventricular murmurs are purely functional, they have their source in nervous derangements, and may be traced most commonly to a disordered stomach or to indigestion.

Considerable importance is attached to the acoustic properties of the chest, as affecting the character of the cardiac sounds. Illustrative cases are given where the occurrence of pneumonia or pleurisy has caused the sudden disappearance of cardiac murmurs previously heard, and which returned with the lapse of the inter-current disease. The reason of this is supposed to be that the pulmonary effusions interfere with the transmission of the finer heart sounds to the ear. The mechanism is illustrated by comparing the chest to a musical instrument—to a violin; if a watch be suspended within the instrument, and a stethoscope is applied to the wall outside, the sounds of the watch will be conveyed to the ear clearly and distinctly, but if the cavity of the violin with sand or

to which match-makers are liable from the inhalation of phosphorus were successfully averted in that factory, by the suggestion of Dr. Letheby that the work-people should wear, suspended to the neck, a little open bottle containing the essence of turpentine. The vapours escaping suffice to neutralize the effects of the phosphorus. Dr. Audant, of Dax, had a patient who had swallowed a decoction of lucifer-matches with a view to suicide, and a draught of turpentine to hasten it. The turpentine, on the contrary, acted as an antidote, prevented the phosphorus from burning in the economy, and so obviated its deleterious effects. The Academy has accordingly awarded its prize to M. Audant and M. Personne, but not to Dr. Letheby, whose priority is, however, formally recognized by the reporter.—*London Med. Rec.*, July 2, 1873.

*Sulphuric Acid Ammonia*  
*Similar for Lead-workers.*

*Death from Chloroform.*—A German, aged 44, was admitted into the Cincinnati Hospital on account of a dislocation of the shoulder. Chloroform was administered on a towel, to produce relaxation of the muscles with a view to the reduction of the luxation. The breathing became irregular, the chloroform was removed, and the respiration became normal. The pulse at this time showed no irregularity. The anæsthetic was again administered, and before the muscles were completely relaxed it was removed. Half a minute later, at the moment of reduction, the patient ceased to breathe. All efforts at resuscitation were fruitless.

At the autopsy "the blood was more fluid than normal." The left ventricle was contracted, the right relaxed but empty; the valves were healthy. A detailed report of this case will be found in

*The Clinic for October*

Turpentine as a Prophylactic against  
Poisoning by Phosphorus.—The Prix Bar-  
bier of the Académie de Médecine has  
been this year awarded for an observa-  
tion and plan of treatment first made by  
Dr. Letheby in the match factory of  
Messrs. Bell & Black, at Stratford. The  
dreadful diseases of the bones of the face

According to Dr. Hamdy, the propylamine of commerce is an alkaline solution prepared from herring-brine, and is composed principally of ammonia and triméthylamine, with very little propylamine in it. After having gone through the distinctive characters of propylamine, he passes in review the clini-

...a cherry pressed between the fingers. In order to effect reduction, an assistant, taking the malleoli as a point of resistance, applied his thumbs vigorously to the head of the astragalus, and endeavored to thrust it downwards and backwards, while M. Rigal carried the foot upwards and outwards. At the second attempt the bone re-entered abruptly, and two months later the patient had entirely recovered.

In ninety-three reported cases of complete luxation of the astragalus, not compound, this was only the twenty-seventh time that reduction had been effected.

J. W. W.

THE POISONOUS PROPERTIES OF A SERIES OF ALCOHOLS (*La France Médicale*, August 4, 1875).—At a recent meeting of the Académie des Sciences, MM. Dujardin-Beaumetz and Audigé reported the results of a series of experiments on some of the alcohols produced by fermentation, including ethylic, propylic, butylic, and amylic alcohol:

1. The toxic properties of this series follow mathematically their atomic composition; whenever the latter is represented by high numbers, the poisonous action is marked, and this is the case whether the alcohol has been introduced through the skin or by the stomach.

2. For the same alcohol, the toxic effect is greater when it has been given by the stomach than when it has been administered through the skin. In the latter case, however, the dilution of the alcohol augments its action.

3. The poisonous phenomena observed appear to be the same in general, except the degree of intensity, whichever alcohol be employed.

The lesions produced also follow an increasing order from ethylic to amylic alcohol. The disturbances of the membrane are all as intense

PHOSPHORUS-NECROSIS.—Dr. A. Haas has recently written a memoir on this subject, from an abstract of which contained in *Le Mouvement Médical*, July 24, we take the following :

“Necrosis of the maxillary bones from phosphorus was first mentioned by Lorinser, of Vienna, in 1845. Its existence was soon denied ; M. Dupasquier, among others, asserting that the symptoms described were due to arsenic. The growth of the match industry soon afforded numerous opportunities for investigation, and the existence of such an affection was soon placed beyond doubt. The method of its production, however, is still a matter of conjecture.

“A peculiar circumstance, and one which is difficult to explain, is that while the regular match-makers are attacked by the disease in all its malignity, yet the workmen employed in the manufacture of phosphorus itself, although their breath may become so saturated as to be luminous, and those occupied with the red or amorphous phosphorus, enjoy entire immunity from the effects of this poison.

“It has been asserted that the acids of phosphorus dissolved by the saliva penetrate the gums, and by contact with the periosteum and the bone afford an opportunity for the production of necrosis. This theory would account for the immunity of those classes of workers in phosphorus above mentioned, who are only exposed to the vapors of phosphuretted hydrogen, and not, as in the case of the match-makers, to the vapors of oxidized phosphorus. This theory of the local action of phosphorus was maintained by Strohl, while Lorinser and others maintained a general toxic effect brought about by exposure to the poison.

good nevertheless. The most interesting matter in the Medicine Section was the report of Prof. Rutherford of his experimental researches on the excretion of bile and the effects of certain drugs. The very interesting subject of chronic diseases of the kidneys was taken up by two papers, looking at different parts of the morbid changes, Dr. Clifford Allbutt discussing the causes of granulating kidney, while Dr. Gowers engaged himself with the arterial changes. The chief interest of the first day centred round what was going on in the Public Medicine Section, where the present position of sanitary matters was being earnestly discussed. The different officers of health gave each other countenance in denouncing the local authorities, who, from economy, regard for vested interests, supineness, and even simple obstructiveness, prevent these health officers from reducing the profession generally to a state of pauperism. If they only had their way, typhoid fever, miasma, choleraic diarrhoea, scarlatina, and sundry other scourges would be swept from the face of the earth; and the general practitioner's boys and girls would be sent perforce to the parochial schools instead of middle-class educational establishments. Thanks, however, to the much-abused local authorities, such abject penury has not yet overtaken the profession, nor is it likely to do so in the present generation. Of course, it is a notorious fact that much has yet to be done by legislative measures before the prevention of disease can be carried out in a thoroughly efficient manner.

On Thursday the question of alcohol was discussed in this Section, both its use in disease, and the treatment of inebriates at Balham under the superintendence of Mr. C. Holtehouse. So far the success is such as to warrant further continuation of the scheme. In the Medicine Section the day was given up entirely to the subject of the production of disease by certain industries, especially disease of the respiratory organs. Dr. J. C. Hall gave an account of the Sheffield manufactories and their effects, together with the different measures which had been adopted for the protection of the workmen. Of course, the most fatal of all forms of labor is the "dry-grinding," where the workman was enveloped in a cloud of stony particles during the hours of labor, previous to the introduction of fans. These fans are worked by steam, and consist of a wheel, not unlike the wheel of a paddle-steamer, encased in a box, from which a large shaft passes straight in front of the grindstone in one direction, while the outgoing shaft passes away to the open air. The open mouth of the shaft is placed close to the wheel, just at that point where the grinder places his article to be ground, so that all the stone-dust is swept away from the current of inspiration of the grinder, who grinds "from himself." By this means the particles of stone are drawn

away, and at the same time the work-rooms are ventilated, so that the introduction of fans has been a great boon to the "dry-grinding" trades. It appeared that in the accumulations in the lungs of the grinders no particles of steel have ever been found. After watching dry-grinding, this is no matter of surprise. Even without fans, the higher specific gravity of the iron particles, driven off centrifugally by the motion of the grindstone, carried them away beyond the inspiration-area of the grinder. Great improvement in the lungs of the grinders has followed from this introduction of fans. Next came Dr. Purdon, of Belfast, who gave an account of the lung-diseases which are found in the flax-dressing trades of the north of Ireland. His paper was illustrated by a microscopic drawing in which the flax fibres were shown to be attached to the alveolar walls. Dr. Arlidge described the "potter's asthma" of the Staffordshire industries, where there are accumulations of earthy dust in the lungs. Dr. Beveridge then gave details of the phthisis found among the granite-hewers of Aberdeen. Two important papers were not read: one by Dr. Peacock on French Millstone-Maker's Phthisis, and another by Dr. Elam on the Tolerance of Foreign Matters by the Lungs. As it was, however, there was a sufficient amount of material for a long and interesting discussion. The discussion, however, went too much in the direction of clinical observation, and too little into the pathological aspect of the diseases caused by dust-inhalation. How these foreign particles accumulate in the alveoli of the lungs, and then break down the intra-alveolar boundaries, forming large aggregations, was comparatively little touched upon. Several of the staff of the London Chest-Hospitals were there, who spoke of mason's phthisis, of baker's phthisis, of lung-disturbance in feather-workers and others. There are, it would appear, no means of cure or prevention of a medical character, unless it be the periodic administration of emetics, as told by the late Hugh Miller in "My Schools and Schoolmasters." The best means are, of course, preventive; and an ingeniously designed "Respirator Mask," formed of feathers, was sent up by B. W. Richardson, so well known for his beneficent inventions. By the use of fans, of other means of keeping up good and thorough ventilation in the work-rooms, and these feather respirators, much can be done, if only the work-folks are sufficiently thoughtful. There is much room for fear that the Sheffield grinder does not look with favor on these means for diminishing the death-rate of his fellow-workers. Greater longevity would lead to reduced wages, and he follows the idea of the old toast in the services, "Here's to a bloody war or a sickly season."

In the evening the dinner of the Association came off, with the usual speeches and the display of local magnates and M.P.'s. Mr. Roe-

Second. Its use as a medicine is chiefly that of a cardiac stimulant, and often admits of substitution.

Third. As a medicine it is not well fitted for self-prescription by the laity, and the medical profession is not accountable for such administration, or for the enormous evils resulting therefrom.

Fourth. The purity of alcoholic liquors is in general not as well assured as that of articles used for medicine should be. The various mixtures, when used as medicine, should have definite and known composition, and should not be interchanged promiscuously.

#### BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

[From our Special Correspondent.]

THE chief matter of medical interest which has occurred since my last letter has been the annual meeting of the British Medical Association. So important in every respect has this Association now become that its annual gatherings are looked forward to and back to with much interest by a very large number of the profession. Originally the Association was formed of a limited number of medical men in the provinces, who determined to meet every year to read papers, to discuss subjects, and, still more, to bring men scattered over all parts of the kingdom into personal contact with each other. From its primitive gathering together of a score or two of well-known provincial men, it has now developed into an annual meeting of several hundred medicos, a number of whom are accompanied by their sisters, wives, or daughters. On the Tuesday morning the earliest arrivals attend a morning service in the most prominent church of the place, where the meeting is held, but usually there is no great muster till the council meeting of the afternoon. By the general meeting at 8 P.M., there is usually a good gathering to hear the valedictory address of the retiring President and the introductory address of the incoming President. This year this meeting possessed great interest. The old Scotch veteran, Sir Robert Christison, went out of office, and Dr. Bartolomè, in his address, gave an explanation of the reasons which prevented the outgoing President being present in person. After that came the wonted account of the town and neighborhood, which now forms a part of every such address. It seems as if the President's speech was a blended compound of hearty welcome and a general introduction to the place, its geology, its geography, its industries and its diseases. Of course, Dr. Bartolomè had a very good subject in Sheffield. For this smoky, noisy town lies in a neighborhood of romantic beauty; and if the Sheffield grinder has any remnants of romance or sentiment left in him they will find good material for their exercise in the many objects of in-

terest in the neighborhood. Sheffield lies at the foot of the hills which form what is called "the backbone of England." These hills terminate on the south in the Trent valley, and stretch northwards, forming the mountain range which divides Lancashire and Yorkshire; those separating the western division constitute the Cumbrian or Lake mountains, while the eastern section furnish the mountainous range which runs along the western edge of Durham far away into East Cumberland, close to the Scottish border. From the southern slopes of these hills rise the tributaries of the Trent; while along the eastern slopes we find first the streams which turn the grinders' stones of Sheffield, and to the northwards, the motive power of the ancient woolen-mills. The western slopes have developed the cotton industry; and the abrupt sides of these hills, with their rushing streams, have produced a very large proportion of the industrial wealth of England; and the term "backbone of England" may be applied in more senses than one. The aspect of this region at night is terrific with the glare of countless furnaces, and its grimy daylight appearance is widely different from the sylvan scenery which is unfolded in the opening pages of Scott's delightful novel "Ivanhoe." The primitive "whittle" then carried is a widely different object from the ornate bowers to be seen in Messrs. Rodgers's show-rooms. And Dr. Bartolomè addressing the British Medical Association formed quite as strong a contrast with the leech of the days of yore, hunting miracle-working herbs on the slopes of Sheffield Moor in the moonlight. Having discharged the duties of President to the satisfaction of all, Dr. Bartolomè took the chair until the business of the meeting was got through. The President of Council read the annual report. He first gave an account of the growth of the Association during the last year. Over seven hundred new members have been elected, and the number of associates now exceeds seven thousand. The funds of the Association are in a flourishing condition, and a fair sum is set aside every year for the purpose of giving grants to scientific workers engaged in original research. It is only of late years that any surplus for such purpose has been available.

At this meeting the grievances of the different members are ventilated, and brought before the Association generally. There was a general expectation of a fight, some aggrieved members having given notice of a proposed attack on the management of the Journal. But an urgent case of hemorrhage detained the leader at home, and all passed off quietly.

Next morning the address in Medicine was given by Dr. Sieveking to a crowded audience, and after lunch the work of the Sections commenced in good earnest. The casting of a 100-ton gun proved too much for the less enthusiastic members, but the attendance was

Wholesale Employment.

Working in lead, or lead paint.

producing lead colic & wrist-drop.

Coloring wall-paper, artificial flowers,  
non-employment — & phthalin —

or sugar plums with arsenical green.

Silvering Mirrors with ~~quicksilver~~.

Making lucifer matches. — Necros. of jaw.

Glass-blowing. — lump heat, — & brain-softening.

Needle grinding — fork-grinding — Cotton-spinning —

Working in feathers, wool, hair, bristles,  
flints, coal. — Benbowton found in 1000 cotton  
spinners 18 deaths annually

from consumption; coal men 41; mineral-workers 30,  
hairs, wool, bristles, feathers 54. — Flint-makers average  
Manufacture of Aniline, — at death but 19 yrs.

Intense bronchitis with spasmodic cough, &  
ulcers on larynx & scrofula.

Cleaning Scaffolds — In India rubber, ~~bi-sulph. carb.~~ —  
(see cut extract.)

Working in Ice Mines: — typhus, scrophulous —  
close air, — & heat-strain if climbing is required.

All entirely sedentary occupations;  
as of seamstresses &c.

Inhalation of turpentine causes in some dizziness,  
palpitation, anaemia. — Photographers risk  
cyanide of potassium, bichloride mercury;  
matchmakers, copper: — "Grass-bowdler's ague."

Working women, acclat. of lead on teeth.

1000 - 1000

London Quarterly Review  
(1865 or 6) — "Children's Employ-  
ment Commission" — appointed 1861.

about 1800 public attention was called  
to factory abuses in England.

1840 a Commission was appointed  
first — Still great abuses exist.

Earthenware manufacture — near  
800 not over 5 yrs old — Little boys  
& girls, 5 & 10, — running with moulds, in  
heat 130° to 1480 sometimes — all day.

Mortality from 13 to 80 per cent. —  
Brick-making — children hand bricks all day long.  
At Lucifer match making 1800 children

Minors in the United Kingdom. Breath  
phosphorus, & clothes absorb it so as to  
shine in the dark.

Lace making at Nottingham,  
Derby, Devonshire, Bedfordshire & Northamptonshire  
as carried on is made very unwholesome

At 4, 5 & 6 years old they begin. Part  
of the work is helped even by little  
things 2 & 3 yrs old: in very  
small close rooms — & all  
day & sometimes all night too.

Only for 3 shillings or 3 pence  
a week at the best 150 000 per  
ann in the U. Kingdom engaged in  
lace manufactures.

Straw plait manufacture  
is not necessarily unhealthy — but  
is made dreadfully so.

Parents are the taskmasters of ten, cruelly,  
6000 or 7000 children at this hour  
of air & too many hours of work.

Woolen Manufacture has similar  
abuses.

arms small, though constantly worked  
the employment common hereditary.

(2)

Children are overworked in brick-making,  
catching & passing the bricks — a gut of 12  
passing 2 bricks — 14 pounds — all day.  
Work-grinding about the worst — streams of  
sparks — red hot particles from friction of stone  
Steel, being breathed — unless protected, as, best,  
by a fan in motion by the power which moves the  
stone. Draws the particles into a shaft.  
In foundries of Sheffield, children are

dreadfully overworked, with hammer  
& running — (2)

## THE STAFFORDSHIRE POTTERIES.

As we are fast becoming a great manufacturing people, it behooves us to examine with a scrutinizing eye the merits and defects of the general management and internal economy of the different branches of manufacture in foreign countries, not only in order to correct abuses, but, better still, to frame such a plan as shall prevent from the very outset the occurrence of abuses affecting the health, morals and intelligence of the operatives. We will therefore consider the English potteries, and more particularly those of Staffordshire. The population in the Staffordshire potteries is considerably over 100,000; but the number actually engaged in the pottery manufacture is 27,432, including not fewer than 593 little children, of whom 159 were females; and 4605 children of between five years old and ten, making altogether, under ten years old, an aggregate number of 5918 persons, of whom 2917 were females.

The physical condition of the inhabitants of the potteries is anything but favorable. Premature imposition and overwork of children; prolonged toil of women; excessive work on the part of men making up for lost time, and, too often, weakened by dissipation, and the work carried on mostly in hot, ill-ventilated, dirty shops, amid an atmosphere of dust, are conditions that sufficiently explain stunted growth, wide-prevailing scrofula, potter's asthma or consumption, and premature death. Besides hot, ill-ventilated, and too often ill-lighted shops, and an atmosphere laden with the mineral dust of the dried clay proceeding from begrimed clothes, dirty floors and dirty workbenches, the potter is exposed to a yet more tangible cause of sickness in the composition of the glaze used for the ware, for lead enters into it in considerable proportions, and exerts its poisonous effects upon those engaged in the process called "dipping," and in the packing, technically "placing," the newly-dipped ware in boxes of coarse clay, previous to its being fired.

The English Factory act has one clause directing the precautions to be used by the operatives for the preservation of their health. By this clause women and children are forbidden to take their meals in the "dipping houses," or to remain there "during any time allowed for meals." But this enactment falls short of what is required in enforcing precautionary measures and disciplinary regulations on all as to dress, ablutions, &c. In the process of dipping the hands are constantly wetted with the poisonous glaze, and the face and clothes bespattered with it; yet the latter are mostly, day by day, unwashed, and the ablutions of the body, for the most part, sadly neglected. The work-people in these districts are too generally satisfied with a mere pretence of washing themselves, and yet these workers in lead are, of all people in the world, just those who need thorough washing with soap and water. The day will soon come, we hope, when operatives of all classes will put a higher value on their lives and health, and take heed to those sanitary measures calculated to preserve them, and when employers and masters will find it to their interest, as it ought even to be their duty, to aid them in so doing.

...k county, Texas, had been a...  
...authorities, and held for trial und...  
...He was afterwards arrested by the...  
...ilitary, under orders from General Heintzle...  
...The prisoner was then brought by a...  
...of habeas corpus before Judge Goode, of...  
...District Court, who decided that the mili...  
...had no jurisdiction, he being a citizen.

#### The Atlantic Cable.

THE TARIFF TO BE REDUCED 50 PER CENT.

No. 145 BROADWAY, N. Y., Oct. 28, 1866.

D. H. CRAIG, General Agent New York  
Associated Press:

Dear Sir—It gives me pleasure to inform you,  
through you the public, that on and after  
first day of November the tariff on all mes-  
sages passing through the Atlantic Cable will  
be reduced fifty per cent.

Very truly, your friend,

CYRUS W. FIELD.

#### News from Louisville.

LOUISVILLE, Oct. 25.—The Courier special  
to the citizens of Stevenson, Ala., loudly  
demn the incendiary act by which the  
Freedmen's school-house there was burned on  
today. It was erected by the Pennsylvania  
Freedmen's Relief Association, at a cost of  
\$10,000.

John Shaw, from Columbus, was com-  
mitted yesterday, in default of bail, to answer  
charge of forgery.

#### Railroad Accident.

LOUISVILLE, Oct. 21.—A freight and con-  
struction train on the Memphis branch of the  
Louisville and Nashville Railroad came in  
collision this morning, near Russellville, Ky.  
The front of the train was precipitated over a  
high embankment. Dick Thompson, one  
of the oldest and best engineers in the country,  
both legs crushed.  
Further particulars have been received.

#### Republican Nomination.

WINTHROP, VT., Oct. 25.—At the Union  
Republican Convention, held to-day at Hyde-  
park, to nominate candidates for Congress in  
the district of Messrs. Hoyt and Baxter, who were  
elected for by the Republicans in September  
last, the Hon. Worthington C. Smith, of St.  
Johns, was nominated on the first ballot, re-  
ceiving 65 votes out of 119 cast.

#### A Fenian Prisoner to be Hung.

BUFFALO, Oct. 25.—The Courier has received  
a special despatch from Toronto, which says:  
Colonel Lynch, a Fenian prisoner, is to be  
hanged on the 13th of December.

Great excitement prevails over the sentence,  
the people seem to concur in it, and will  
oppose any attempt at a reprieve.

Mr. Lumsden is to be tried to-morrow.

#### National Game—The Atlantics and the Eureka.

NEW YORK, Oct. 25.—The base ball match  
between the Atlantics and the Eureka, of New-  
York, came off to-day at Williamsburg. The  
Eureka gave up the game after the seventh  
inning—the score standing 38 to 13.

#### Sentence of a Burglar.

BOSTON, Oct. 25.—At Lawrence to-day, Geo.  
Hanniston, one of the Beverly burglars, who  
was engaged in an affray with the State constables  
at Chelsea Beach some time ago, was sentenced  
to the State Prison for 20 years.

#### Heavy Failure.

NEW BEDFORD, Oct. 25.—The Evening Stan-  
dard of to-day says that the failure of George  
H. Simmons, an oil dealer of Boston, for  
\$100,000, is reported. His liabilities to parties in  
the city are \$100,000.

#### Markets.

CHICAGO, Oct. 25.—Flour opened at an ad-  
vance of 15 to 25 cents, but closed dull, with the  
advance partially lost. Wheat moderately ac-  
tive at a decline of 2 a 3 cents; sales at 219 a 220  
No. 1, and 195 a 198 for No. 2. Corn irregu-  
lar, closing steady at 75½ for Nos. 1 and 2.  
Hemp at 38½. High Wines steady. Old  
Whisky \$31, and new \$26 50 a 27. Lard quiet

at  
the C  
Nich  
May  
Th  
anoth  
It w  
Steph  
Satur  
A B  
from  
at the  
morn  
plete  
suffoc  
The  
the s  
foren  
The  
in Pa  
Mo  
dant  
ply a  
rema  
havin  
per o  
Go  
"sho  
the d  
at 10  
146½  
4 P.  
For  
rates  
don  
110 a  
bank  
a 5f.  
36½  
79½.  
Th  
sions  
rathe  
were  
and  
were  
day.  
create  
Clear  
New  
were  
move  
in gre  
The  
to me  
have  
demp  
down  
ket.  
coup b  
sented  
demp  
the clo  
Gov  
durin  
to bre  
At the  
a fair  
The  
street  
Spr  
33¾ a  
Quick  
do. pr  
York  
Huds  
Mich  
125½  
Cleve  
108½  
Min  
early  
the clo  
The  
to \$7.0  
\$96,371  
custom  
COT  
for up  
FLOU  
of 9000  
sales of

**FACTORY HOURS IN EUROPE.**—The appendix to the recent pamphlet of Mr. Alexander Redgrave, on the textile fabrics of France and Belgium, and a paper appended to Dr. Ernest Von Plener's "English Factory Legislation," furnish interesting information respecting the factory laws of the principal European countries, particularly with reference to the hours and conditions of labor.

In North Germany the law of 1869 does not permit the "regular employment" of children under twelve, but between twelve and fourteen they may work six hours a day, and ten hours between fourteen and sixteen. Their labor must not begin before 5½ A. M. nor last beyond 8½ P. M.; nor must work on Sundays nor holidays. Beyond this there appears to be no restriction upon the employment of either women or young persons. The Prussian law, which was passed in 1839, and amended in 1853, was assimilated in 1869 to that of North Germany. In Austria, where several ordinances have been issued since 1839 on this subject, the present law was also adopted in 1869. It is similar to that of North Germany, but the legal working hours for young persons lie between six A. M. and eight P. M., with intervals of two hours for meals.

In Baden the law of 1840 is still in force. The only restrictions are that children may not be employed under eleven years of age, nor unless they have previously attended school. Their work must not begin before 5 A. M., nor extend beyond 9 P. M. Amendments are expected to be adopted which will limit the labor of young persons under sixteen to ten and a half hours daily, and will prohibit night work. The Factory act of Bavaria also dates from 1840. No children may go to work under nine years, and between nine and twelve they may not be employed for more than ten hours, which range between 6 A. M. and 8 P. M.

There is no factory legislation whatever in either Holland or Belgium. In the former country a commission appointed in 1863 to ascertain the usual practice with regard to the employment of children in factories, reported that they were seldom set to work under nine years of age, and that the hours of work varied from eleven to thirteen. The commission was strongly opposed to any legal limitation of the working hours, but they recommended compulsory attendance at school. The Belgian factories as a rule run during twelve hours each day, and occasional instances of thirteen hours occur.

The present French law was enacted in 1841. Children may not be employed under eight years of age, nor between eight and twelve for more than eight hours per day, with one interval of rest. Between twelve and sixteen the limit is twelve hours, with two intervals; but some relaxation in these restrictions is allowed in dye and print works. The law does not apply to establishments where less than twenty persons are employed. The great defect of the act is, however, the absence of any provision for its enforcement. Six months ago there were no inspectors, but within that period two have been appointed. It is well known that the law is systematically disregarded, both as regards the hours of labor and the employment of children under age.

In Italy there is no enactment respecting either the hours of labor or public education, but some movement, at least in the former direction, is expected. Switzerland has no factory act, but the school laws in some cantons afford a fair measure of protection to children. But elsewhere the attendance at school begins after ten or eleven hours' work in a factory. Factories are kept running in some cantons as long as during fourteen hours per day. In Sweden no children may be employed under twelve years of age, nor any person under eighteen between the hours of nine at night and five in the morning; but there is no other restriction.

be supported.

The decree of the Court at Nisi Prius is, therefore, reversed, and the bill is ordered to be dismissed at the cost of the plaintiffs.

#### SALE OF STOCKS AND REAL ESTATE.—

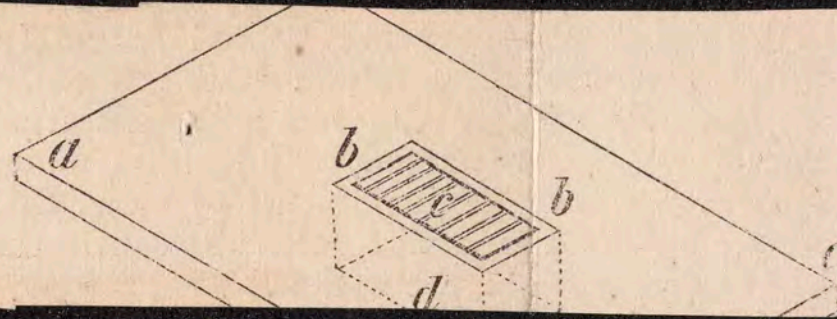
Thomas & Sons sold the following properties at the Exchange yesterday: 100 shares Pennsylvania Canal Co., \$16; 200 shares McElheny Oil Co.,  $2\frac{1}{2}$ c.; 600 shares Philadelphia and Boston Petroleum Co., 27c.; 200 shares McClintockville Petroleum Co., 12c.; 64 shares Minehill and Schuylkill Haven Railroad Co., \$52; 500 shares Pit Hole and Kanawha Oil Co.,  $\frac{1}{2}$ c.; 50 shares New Grenada Mineral Land Co.,  $\frac{1}{2}$ c.; 1 share Germantown and Perkiomen Turnpike Co., 50c.; 5 shares Steubenville and Indiana Railroad Co., \$1 25; 5 shares Huntingdon and Broad Top Mountain Railroad and Coal Co., \$10 50; 3 shares Planters' Bank of Tennessee, \$1 87; 7882 shares Bohemian Mining Co. of Michigan, 80c.; 8 shares Bank of North America, \$246; 32 shs. Western National Bank, \$66 75; 40 shares National Bank of the Northern Liberties, \$125 25; \$5500 American Steamship Co. of Phila. Coupons, six per cent., April and October, 80c.; 10 shares Emaus Iron Co., \$41; 15 shares West Philadelphia (Market St.) Passenger Railway Co., \$95; 50 shares Second and Third Sts. Passenger Railway Co., \$55 50; 16 shares Union Mutual Insurance Co., \$5; 15 shares Reliance Ins. Co., \$44; \$30 Delaware Mutual Insurance Co. Scrip, 1869, 70 per cent.; \$460 do. do. do., 1872, 68 per cent.; 100 shares Beaver Farm Petroleum Co.,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; 240 shares Lykens Valley Coal Co., par \$100, \$59 50; 24 shares Delaware and Chesapeake Towboat Co., par \$100, \$100; 10 shares National Bank of the Republic, \$90; Lot No. 19, south half, Sec. 43, Mount Moriah Cemetery, \$80; Lots Section A, Nos. 318 and 319 Monument Cemetery, \$30; three-story brick store, N. E. corner of Market and Seventh streets, and lot, 21 feet 8 in. by 50 feet, \$19,700; three-story brick dwelling, No. 1324 Rose street; six three-story brick dwellings, in White's court, with the lots, \$7300; country mansion and 30 acres, on Oak lane, North Pennsylvania railroad, \$27,500; lot of ground on Sansom street, east of Thirty-sixth, 15 by 100 feet, \$900; two-story frame, No. 133 Washington avenue, and lot, 15 by 25 feet, \$700; farm, of 65 acres, and stone mansion, at Radnor station, eleven miles from Philadelphia, \$32,000; building lot, on Front street, north of Morris, 26 by 87 feet, \$600; one on Otsego st., north of Moore, 15 by 88 feet, \$300; mansion and 20 acres on Spring avenue, Cheltenham Hills,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles from Germantown, and a lot adjoining the above, containing fruit trees, \$26,000; two three-story brick dwellings, Nos. 1110 and 1112 Elm street, and lot 36 by 74 feet, \$1750 each; three-story brick dwelling, No. 1518 Montgomery avenue, and lot 20 by 122 feet, \$1700; three-story brick dwelling, on Myrtle street, between Twelfth and Thirteenth, and lot 16 by 32 feet, \$1400; three-story brick dwelling, No. 317 Bradford street, and lot 15 by 50 feet, \$2150; three-story brick store and dwelling, No. 766 South Front street, and three three-story brick and two frame dwellings in the rear, and lot 18 by 200 feet, \$5500; three-story brick dwelling, No. 142 Morris street, and lot 16 by 110 feet, \$3725; ground rents of \$20 and \$30 a year, payable in silver, sold, the first for \$290, the other for \$425; ground rent of \$40, \$475.

#### ANNUAL MEETING OF THE MEMBERS OF THE UNION BENEVOLENT ASSOCIATION.—

The forty-second annual meeting of the Union Benevolent Association was held, yesterday afternoon, at the rooms, corner of Seventh and Sansom streets, William A. Porter, President, in the chair.

The annual report was read, showing that the number of visits made to the habitations of the poor was 10,579; number of families under care, 5756; number of sick persons administered to, 1208; number of deaths attended upon, 161; number of children found homes, 16; number of women

1873  
—The principal features of the law, just passed by the French National Assembly, regulating the labor of children and females in factories, are as follows: Children under ten years are excluded from all factory work; boys from ten to thirteen, and girls from ten to fourteen, are to work only half-time; boys under sixteen, and females under twenty-one, will be excluded from all night-work. From a hygienic point of view, this will be a great gain to the working population of France, and will certainly contribute in some measure to the much-needed physical regeneration of the nation.



The plan may be adopted in houses already built by using a metal pipe, letting this partly into the back wall of the chimney flue *c c*, Fig. 1. In conjunction with this we would also recommend the "ash grid" to be adopted,

A BILL has passed the Massachusetts Senate providing that no child under 10 years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment, and no child between the ages of 10 and 14 shall be so employed unless he has attended school six months during the year next preceding such employment, and shall have lived within the Commonwealth the preceding six months; that no child under 15 shall be employed more than sixty hours a week; that persons offending, either owners, agents, superintendents or parents, shall forfeit for each offence \$40.

3

1000 State W D 68	200
reg ca-h 101	600
1000 Bel & Del bds	35
400 City 6s new	100%
20 do new	100
350 do old	93
2500 do old	93%
1000 Read mort 6s	91
6000 Leh 6s '84 b5	89%
1000 C & Am 6s '70	95
1000 Phil & Erie 6s	92
5000 Cam & Am B 181	181

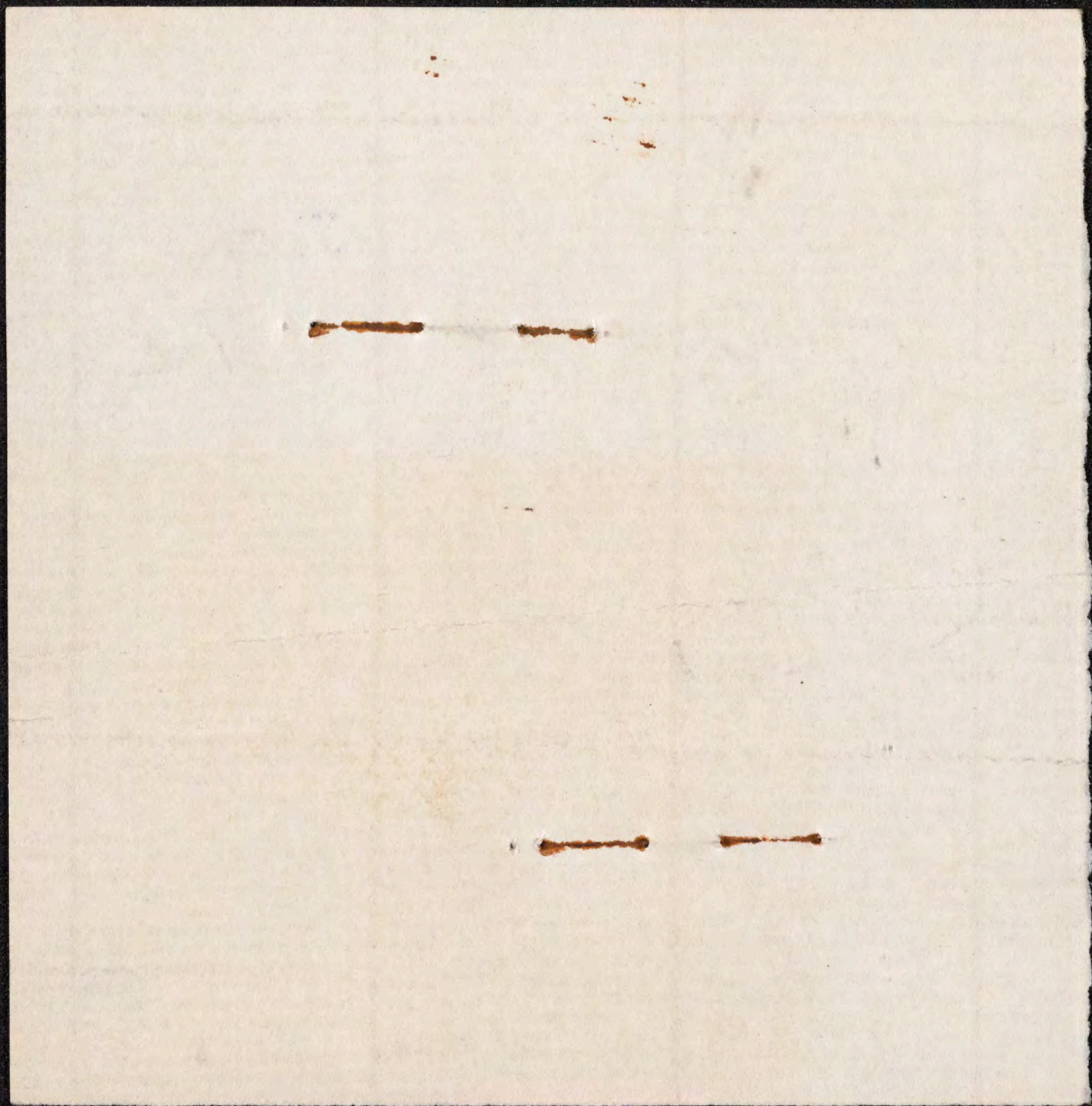
do	lots 50	1-16
do	600 50	1-16
do	600wn	50
do	b15	50%
do	lots	50
Leh N stlk	lts	13%
Mech Bk	b5 lts	33
do		33
Penna R.	60	50%
do	cash lts	66

LA  
C.  
next  
181  
street  
and  
War

avocations.

In France, laws forbid  
children in factories  
under ~~8~~. From 8 to 12,  
work of 8 hrs, with repose in  
middle; 12 to 16 yrs, of 12 hrs,  
and of rest.

In Sheffield, at least, in  
England — late abuses in  
factories, as regards overwork of  
children, have been exposed.



Approximate  
Vital Statistics.

Population of the World, 1475,000,000.

Most Populous Regions, Egypt, China,  
England, Belgium.

Marriages in Europe, 1 to 120 inhabitants.

Marriages in United States, 1 to 100 inhabitants.

Births to each Marriage, 4.

Births to Population, 1 in 30.

Sexes: 9362 females born to 10000 males,

9190 " die " "

Deaths to Population, annually, U. States,  
1 in 45.

Lowest annual mortality anywhere,  
15 in 1000.

Average age at death, the world over,  
33 to 35 years.

1875

Population of the United States, 1875

White Population, 1875

Colored, 1875

Advantages in Europe, 1875

Advantages in United States, 1875

Disadvantages in Europe, 1875

Disadvantages in United States, 1875

Results: 1875

1875

Disadvantages in Europe, 1875

Disadvantages in United States, 1875

Results: 1875

1875

~~Blackboard~~ Vital Statistics, 1874

Population of the World <sup>1391,532,000</sup> ~~1288 millions~~ 1433 millions.  
Bahr Wagner, 1882.  
Most populous regions: Egypt, China, England, Belgium.

Marriages in Europe, 1 to 121 of inhabitants.  
" " U.S., 1 to 102

Births to each marriage, average, 4.

Births to population, about 1 in 30.

Sexes - 9362 females born to 10000 males.  
9190 " die " " "

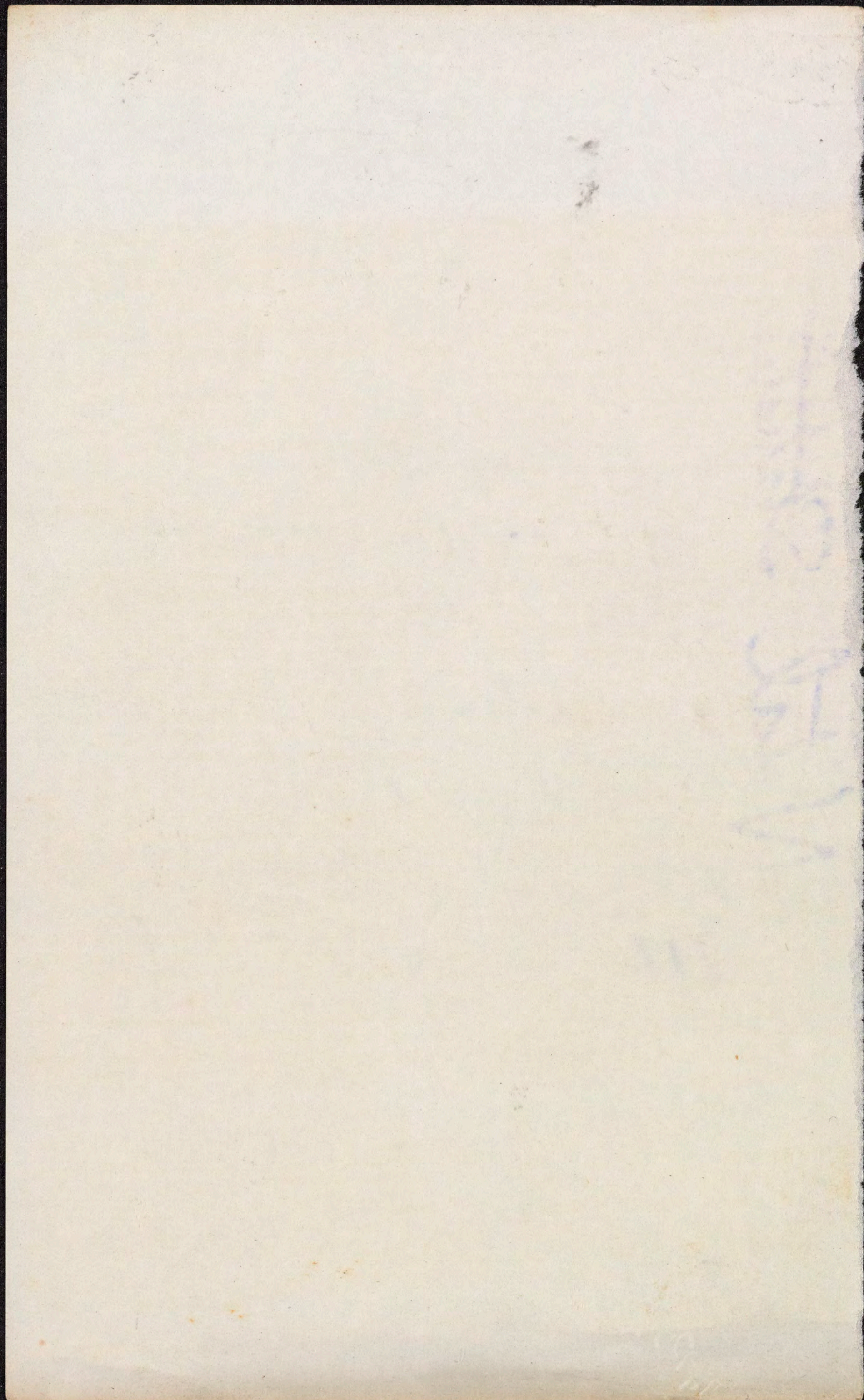
Deaths to population, U.S., annually, 1 in 45.

Lowest inevitable mortality, 15 in 1000 annually.

Average age at death, the world over, 33 years.

Longest lived,	Shortest lived,
Judges	Clerks,
Paupers	Labors,
Gentlemen.	Brakesmen,
	Hunt-makers.

Females, longest lived,	Shortest-lived
Nurses	Dress-makers
Housekeepers	Teachers
Shoe-binders	Day-workers.



2

Marriages, in Europe, (Because)

U.S. - 100/102

France 138

Births &amp; Population: -

Austria

Prussia

England

France

31

31

35

1 December;

(wyime) 1870

34 1/2

Population of the World: 1860.  
(Dieterich) —

1,288 millions;

1400 millions  
no doubt by 1870

400	389 millions	Caucasian race
600	552 "	Mongolian "
200	190 "	Ethiopian "
+	1 "	Am. Indian "
200	200 "	Malay "

Proportion to space:  
(Euyot)

Europe	89	to 29. mile,
Asia	32	" "
Africa	14	"
America	4	"

(Balbi)

To sq. league, England	1457
France	1062
Russia	161
India & Norway	82
Russian Asia	4
China	1172
Cultivated Egypt	1767

over

# Vital Statistics.

What are they?

What are they for?  
For preventive science & application,  
For Life - insurance.

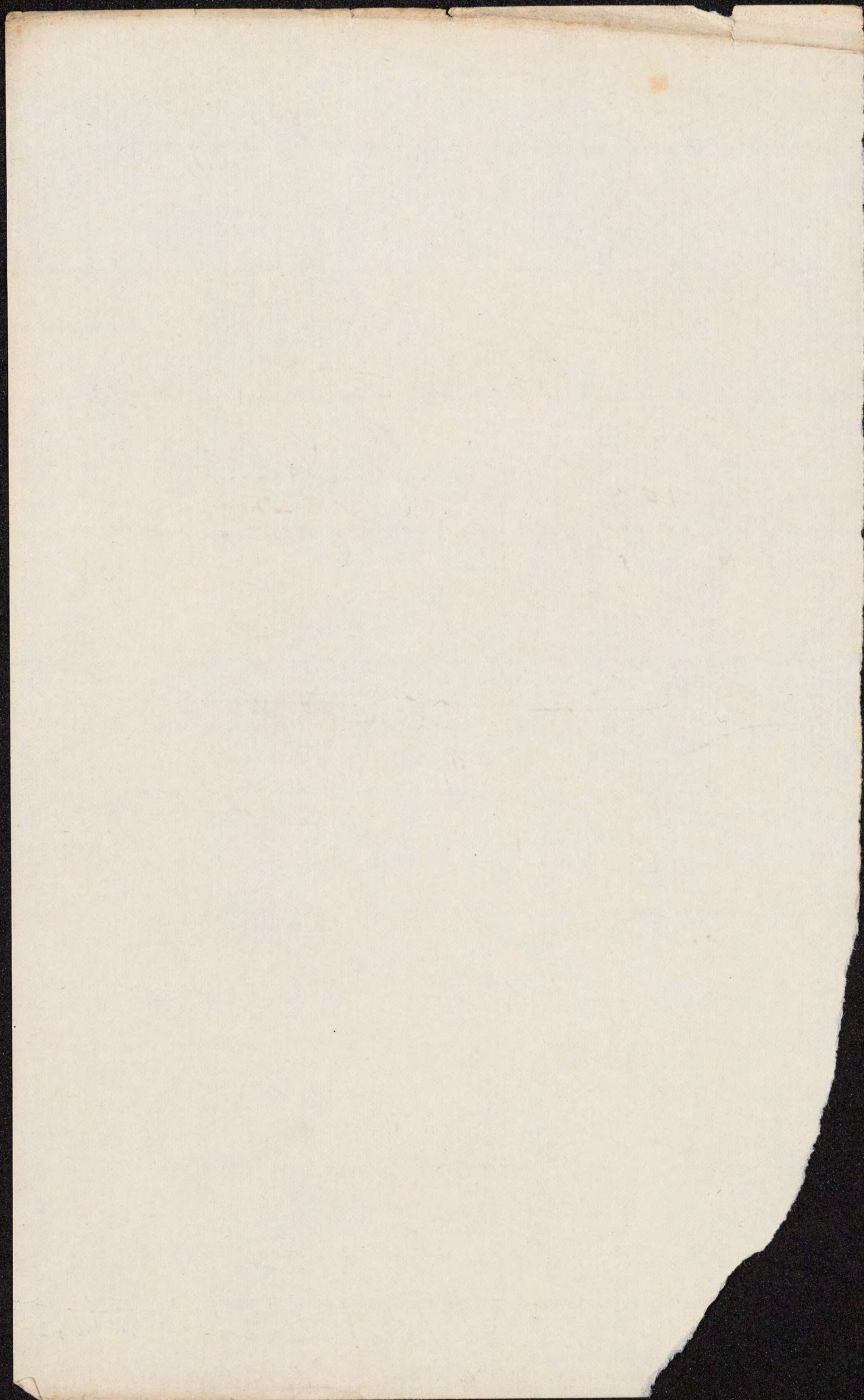
How are they to be got?  
By municipal provisions, aided by medical men.

They are — estimated, as accurate as possible  
of the  
actual population of countries —  
Sexes & ages of "  
no. of births in prop. to popula  
Sexes of births — "  
No. of marriages — "  
No. of deaths — "  
Sexes of deaths — "  
Ages of deaths — "  
Causes of deaths — "  
Amount of sickness — its nature  
these to unavoidable its preventable causes

Number

Relative age

Probabilities!



1  
Sex of births:

To 10000 males,  
9362 females

Excess of male deaths however -  
10000 to 9190 in U. S.

Different at different ages:

1<sup>st</sup> year, - more males die -

2<sup>nd</sup> equal

14-45 females more deaths

21-26 males

30-45 female

over 45 Male

Proportion of females to males is af-  
fected by emigration - & institutions -

Utah - 101 marriageable women to 100 men -

California - 19 " (1860) "

Connection between the two -

over

## Deaths to population:

2

France	—	1 in 45 — 40 per annum
Russia	—	41 28
Austria	"	33
Prussia	"	38
England	"	45
Massachusetts	"	47
U. S.	"	48

Mean duration of life now in France

33.63 years; in 1806 was 28 $\frac{1}{2}$ .

(34 & 10 mos) 34

29 (30 yrs 6 mos)

In manufac. distr. in France, 25 yrs & 3 days

In England more marriages & births fewer deaths than in France.

After great wars & pestilences more births.

most males when husband much older than wife: a large difference.

In Buenos Aires foreigners more male children than natives; don't know why.

~~Mortality of~~

# Mode of living & duration

make great difference & length

of life — <sup>in Parliament</sup>

of 112 peers, of Great Britain  
average <sup>age at</sup> death was 67 — above  
mean of laboring ~~but not~~ of middle  
class.

Casper says <sup>that</sup> at Berlin <sup>the</sup> mean  
<sup>the</sup> of better classes 50 years — poor 32  
Such estimates however do not all  
<sup>in different places,</sup>  
— <sup>ways,</sup> agree. —

Friends Societies in England average  
43  $\frac{3}{4}$  years — Miners 41 — Bakers 40  
Plumbers & Painters 37 — Clerks 32  
Laboring class in U. S. generally  
shorter lived than wealthier. — over

# In Massachusetts (Wymme)

(2)

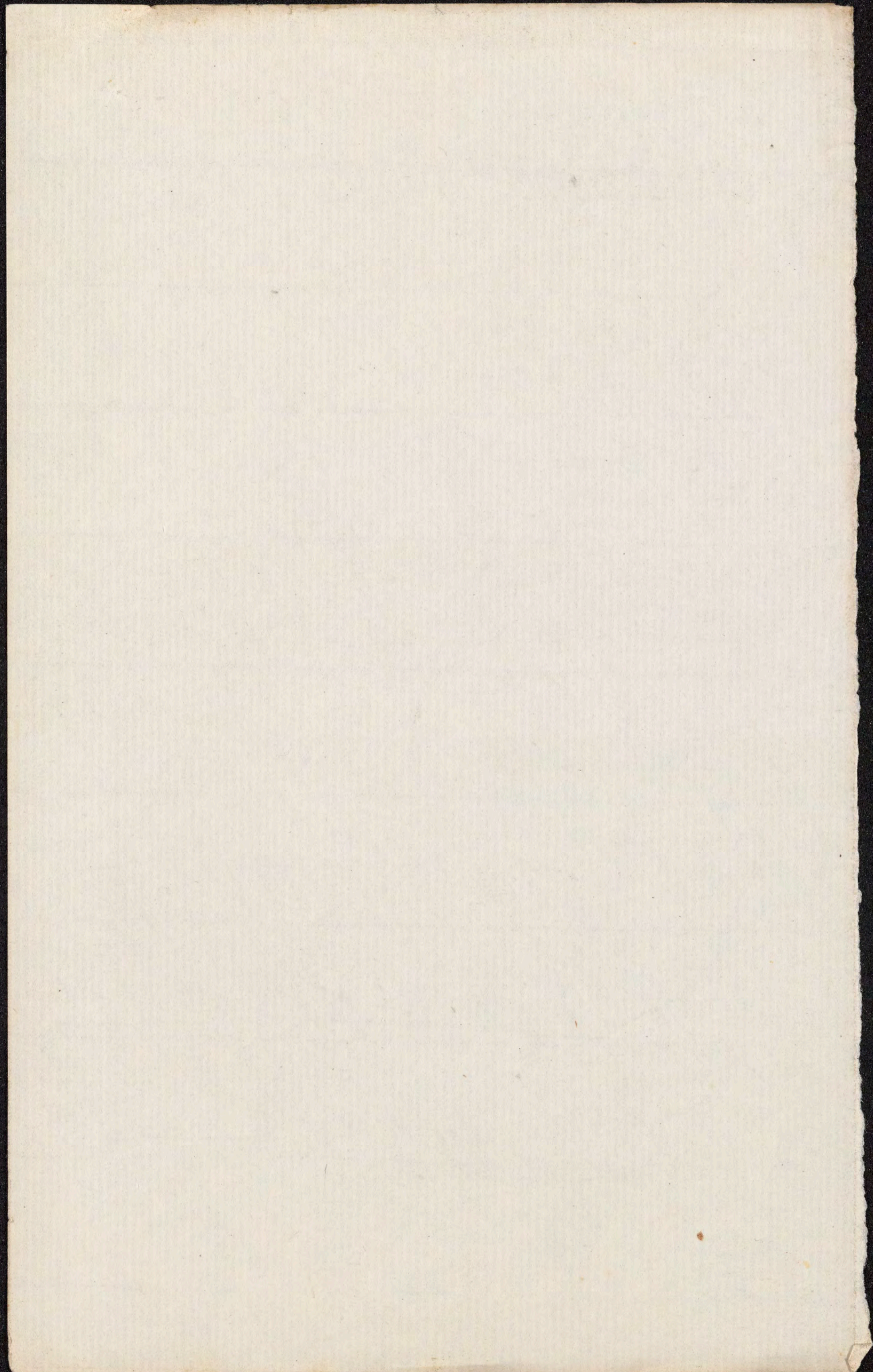
Judges & Justices	67
Paupers	55.19
Gentlemen	64
Bank Officers	61.75
Millers	61 1/2
Clergymen	56 1/2
Lawyers	56 1/2
Physicians	55 3/4
Wharves	55
Agriculturists	47
Artisans	40
Employers	33 3/4
Clerks	34
Labors	27
Boatmen	19
Shut makers	

Albion Massachusetts  
of females —

Nurses average	54.6 yrs
Housekeepers	57
Shoebinders	45½
Domestics	44
Seamstresses	41.8
Tailresses	40½
Milliners	35½
Dressmakers	32½
Strawborders	35
Teachers	28
Female Dry laborers	27.7

Instances of old people:

(in Note-Book: —)



Horrible mortality, —  
At ~~the~~ <sup>most</sup> times & most places,  
17 deaths in 1000; from  
15 to 17 in some rural districts  
in England. (Eardner &c).

Dr Lyon Playfair ascertained  
that in Manchester for every  
death there were 28  
cases of sickness.

In the army, — of picked  
men — not often more than

6 cases of sickness for one  
death. About that in French Society.  
The greater the mortality, — the more sickness in proportion to it.

See

Vital Statistics of

U. States,

Census of

1870.

# Mortality in 1870.

(1)

N.Y.	Deaths per 1000	28.8
Phil.		22.72
St. Louis		21.3
Chicago		24.5
Baltimore		25.55
Boston		24.33
Cincinnati		18.39 !
N. Orl.		36.24
S. Francisco		21.57
Washington		16.80 !
Montreal		31.3
London		24
Vienna		29.8
Liverpool		31.1
Edinburgh		26.3

Popul U. States, 1870  
 19,443,663  
 19,064,806  
 428,859

In Europe, Average of  
 Births: Males 106,  
 Females 100.

Men & Boys, —

Women & Girls, —

2/

SUBSCRIPTIONS RECEIVED HERE  
FOR  
*NEW YORK MEDICAL JOURNAL,*  
*PSYCHOLOGICAL JOURNAL,*  
AND  
**POPULAR SCIENCE MONTHLY,**  
Published by D. APPLETON & CO., New York.

1

.....

PHYSICIANS desiring to arrange for SATISFACTORY DISCOUNTS  
on orders for Medical and other works, can do so by enclosing this  
card to

E. S. BROOKS,  
MEDICAL DEPARTMENT,  
D. APPLETON & CO.,  
549 & 551 BROADWAY,  
NEW YORK.

THE POPULATION OF THE EARTH.

From an early copy of the sixth issue of Behm and Wagner's well-known publication, "Die Bevölkerung der Erde," we are able to gather what is the present condition of the earth's surface, so far as its area and population are concerned. This now indispensable publication is issued at intervals of from 18 months to two years, and is the great fountain from which all other statistical works are supplied, so far as relates to the subjects of which Herren Behm and Wagner treat. Every column of this publication bears evidence of the utmost care and discrimination, as well as of tireless research. The difficulty of obtaining statistics of several States are known only to those whose duty it is to do their best to obtain them. So great, indeed, are these difficulties in some instances, that the able compilers of the "Bevölkerung" have actually to manufacture their statistics for themselves. This may seem very doubtful praise to some of our readers, but the process is the only one that can be adopted in some instances, if we are to have trustworthy statistics at all. For instance, in some of the South American States and elsewhere the official statements of areas are so varied and untrustworthy that the editors are compelled to make estimates themselves in the most trustworthy maps that can be obtained, and after a method that demands great delicacy. So also where there are either no, or inconsistent, or only partial statistics of population, Herren Behm and Wagner rightly deem it their duty as editors to complete these statistics by estimation, after the most trustworthy methods at their command. Too much credit, indeed, cannot be given to these two eminent geographers for the thoroughness and fulness with which at regular intervals they edit the statistics of the world in respect of two such important items as the area and population of its various States and divisions. Dr. Behm, since the last issue of the "Bevölkerung," has succeeded to the position so long occupied by the late Dr. Petermann in the eminent geographical house of Perthes, of Gotha; while Dr. Wagner has been transferred from the geographical chair at Königsberg University to the corresponding chair in the University of Göttingen. Both of them have done and are doing much to sustain the high position to which geographical science has attained in Germany.

Since the last publication censuses of several countries have been either taken or published, the results of which the editors have been able to utilize. These are:—Spain, 1877; Portugal, 1878; Greece, 1879; Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1879; New Zealand, 1878; New Caledonia, Marquesas Islands, and Tahiti, 1876; Tuamotu Archipelago and the Sandwich Islands, 1878; French Senegambia, 1878; Canary Islands, 1877; San Salvador, 1878; some of the West India Islands and French Guiana, 1877; and Peru, 1876. The general results for Denmark and Lichtenstein have also been obtained. Although some of the results of the United States census of this year have been made public, the editors have wisely refrained from adopting them, awaiting trustworthy official statements. In view of the recent rumours of foul play, this must be considered prudent. As they state in their preface, we are on the eve of a great census period. Austria and Germany, as well as the United States, take their census this year, and next year our own census is due; so that within the next two years we may look for a fresh issue of the "Bevölkerung." For many of the States which have taken no census since the last issue the editors have been able to avail themselves of official estimates, which in many cases have almost the value of a census.

Herr Nessmann, of Hamburg, contributes an interesting prefatory essay on the progress of population statistics, and Professor Wagner a table of all the censuses that have been taken in the various countries up to the beginning of 1880. The latter also on a map with various shades of red shows at a glance the countries in which actual censuses have been taken, the shades of colour showing their frequency. Countries which have had only one regular census are all the South American States except Chili and India; those that had none before 1853 are Austria, Italy, Spain and Portugal, Algeria, the Australian and South African Colonies, and several smaller places; Britain, Germany, France, Norway and Sweden, Denmark, Greece, and the United States had censuses before 1853.

According, then, to the latest data, as given in the new issue of Behm and Wagner's work, Europe has a population of 315,929,000; Asia, 834,707,000; Africa, 205,679,000; America, 95,495,500; Australia and Polynesia, 4,031,000; Polar Regions, 82,000; giving a total of 1,455,923,500, showing an increase since the last publication, 19 months ago, of 16,778,200.

The following are the populations of the various countries of Europe, with the dates to which the figures refer:—Germany, 1875, 42,727,360, estimate end of 1877, 43,943,834; Austria, end of 1879, estimate, 22,176,745; Hungary, 1876, 15,506,715; Austria-Hungary, 1876, 37,342,000, estimate for end of 1879, 38,000,000; Switzerland, 1878 estimate, 2,792,264; Belgium, estimate 1878, 5,476,668; Netherlands, estimate 1878, 3,981,887; Denmark, 1878, 2,070,400; Sweden, estimate 1878, 4,531,863; Norway, census 1876, 1,818,853; Great Britain and Ireland, estimate 1879, 34,517,000; France, census 1876, 36,905,788; Spain, census 1877, 16,625,860, including the Canaries (280,388), the Balearic Islands (289,035), and Centa and other places in North Africa (12,179); Portugal, census 1878, 4,745,124, including the Azores (264,352) and Madeira (132,221); Italy, estimate 1878, 28,209,620. A census of Greece was taken in 1879, which gave a total area of 51,860 square kilometres and a population of 1,679,775. This population, for reasons stated in the official publication, was considered too small, and 1,702,356 is given as the correct figure. Of course, the editors have not felt themselves justified in giving any estimate of the proposed additions to Greece, as they deal only with accomplished facts. It is hoped that by the date of the next issue they may have a different tale to tell.

In dealing with Roumania and the countries of the Balkan Peninsula the editors have no easy task to perform in putting definitely the numerical results of the Treaty of Berlin, so far as these have been accomplished. They very rightly give the chief heads of this treaty before attempting to interpret it. The utterly unsatisfactory character of most of the statistics relating to this region is notorious, and in working the subject out the editors enter into elaborate comparisons of statistics from various sources; we can only here give the results. So far as the areas of the countries are concerned, the editors in most instances made a careful planimetric calculation for themselves from the Austrian Staff map, and probably their results are, on the whole, the most trustworthy to be obtained until we have actual surveys of the region. With regard to Roumania, after taking account of the retrocession of Bessarabia to Russia and the cession by the latter of the Dobruja, the editors found that the present area of Roumania is 129,947 square kilometres, and the population 5,376,000. The latter figure is based on rather old data, but there is nothing more trustworthy until the Roumanian Government has completed the results of the census. The area of Serbia, after its recent addition of 11,097 square kilometres, is given as 48,657 square kilometres, and the population in 1880, 1,353,890. Though the latter figure is furnished by the able Serbian statistician, M. Jakschitsch, it seems to be less than it ought really to be by 235,000. The treaty area of Montenegro is given as 9,433 square kilometres, and the population, 280,000. With European Turkey the difficulties of the editors culminate, their main resource being to strike a balance of probabilities; the details are much too complicated to give here, and we must content ourselves with the results. The following table, then, gives the results of the calculation of Herren Behm and Wagner as to the area and population of the immediate possessions and the dependencies of European Turkey:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Kilos.	
Immediate possessions .. ..	179,475	4,790,000
Eastern Roumelia .. ..	35,387	923,179
Bulgaria .. ..	63,865	1,965,474
Bosnia, Herzegovina, & Novi Bazar .. ..	60,484	1,167,879
	339,211	8,866,500

Then, taking the Turkish possessions in Asia, we have:—

Immediate possessions .. ..	1,889,055	16,133,000
Cyprus .. ..	9,601	150,000
Tributary Principedom of Samos .. ..	550	37,000
	1,899,206	16,320,000

The entire possessions, then, of Turkey in Europe and Asia have an area of 2,238,417 square kilometres, and a population of 25,180,000.

Turning now to Russia, we find the statistics very mixed, some being comparatively recent and trustworthy, others no one knows how old, and by no means reliable. There are, indeed, very recent figures for most of the governments and district towns, but they are seldom the results of an accurate census. Such a census is, we believe, in progress; meantime we must content ourselves with the very careful reduction of Herren Behm and Wagner. For Poland, we ought to see that we have perfectly trustworthy statistics up to 1877:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Versts.	
European Russia (1870) .. ..	4,313,890.6	65,864,910
Poland (1872) .. ..	111,875.4	6,528,017
Addition to Bessarabia (1878) .. ..	8,149.2	127,000(?)
Finland (1877) .. ..	328,233.2	1,998,626
Caucasus (1873-6) .. ..	385,887	5,391,744
Increase in Armenia (1878) .. ..	22,647.3	236,600(?)
Siberia (1870) .. ..	10,979,637.3	3,440,362
Central Asia .. ..	2,920,524.2	4,401,876
Caspian Sea .. ..	386,125.2	
Russian Dominions .. ..	19,456,925.8	87,959,000

Until we know the final results of the Kuldja Treaty with China, there is, of course, some uncertainty about the Central Asian figures. As to the area of the still independent region between Khiva, Bokhara, Afghanistan, Persia, and the Russian Transcaspian district, the editors give 206,500 square kilometres, and the population, after Vainbéry, 450,000. The only stock that have up to the present moment retained their entire independence are the Tekkes, of whom 200,000 are Akhal-Tekkes, frequenting the oases at the foot of the Kuren-Dagh; the remainder 100,000 have their seat to the east, at present in Merv. Of Khiva, the area is given as 57,800 square kilometres, and the population 700,000. In a footnote the editors give, on the authority of Vainbéry, they state by mistake, correctly on the authority of Mr. A. H. Keane, in *Nature*, the total number of people of the Turcoman stock in Central Asia, 1,100,000.

Proceeding now to the other countries of Asia, we find Bokhara, with the adjacent district of Karategin, Schignan, Roschan, &c., has an area of 239,000 square kilometres and a population of 2,130,000. The total area of Arabia is given as 3,156,600 square kilometres, and the population 5,000,000; of this 2,507,390 square kilometres, with a population of 3,700,000, are still independent of Turkey. There are quite recent estimates for one or two districts of Persia; but the editors still give the area as 1,647,070 square kilometres and the population 7,000,000; the district of Kotar, ceded to Persia by the Berlin Treaty, has an area of 1,125 square kilometres, and a population of 8,000. The editors wisely refrain from giving numerical effect to the Gandamak Treaty in Afghanistan, the area of which they still set down as 721,664 square kilometres, and the population as 4,000,000. At the same time they give the detailed lists of the various tribes and stocks published in *Nature* by Mr. Keane, as the result of careful and independent research, and yielding as

the estimate of population the much higher figure of 6,145,000. Kafiristan has an area of 51,687 square kilometres and a population of 1,000,000, and Beloochistan 276,515 square kilometres and 350,000 inhabitants. China, with all its dependencies, has an area of 11,813,750 square kilometres, and a population of 434,626,500. The latter figure is, however, very uncertain; some authorities maintain it is much too high, and others much too low; the former are more likely to be right. Hongkong in 1876 had an area of 83 square kilometres, and a population of 139,144; Macao (1879) 11.75 square kilometres and 77,230 inhabitants. Japan, according to official statistics of 1878, had an area of 379,711, and a population of 34,338,504. For India many of the figures are more recent than those given in the last issue of the "Bevölkerung." The total area of British possessions in India, including Burmah, is given as 899,341 square miles, and of tributary States, 557,908 square miles; population of former, 191,095,445; of latter, 49,203,053; total British possessions, 1,457,244 square miles, population 240,298,500. The French possessions in India have an area of 508½ square kilometres, and a population (1877) of 280,381; the Portuguese an area of 3,855 square kilometres and a population of 444,987. Ceylon has an area of 24,702 square miles, and a population in 1877 of 2,755,557. The following table shows the areas and populations of the various subdivisions of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, according to the latest attainable data of any value:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Kilos.	
British Burmah .. ..	229,351	2,747,148
Manipur .. ..	19,875	126,000
Tribes east and south of Assam .. ..	65,500	200,000
Independent Burmah .. ..	457,000	4,000,000
Siam .. ..	726,850	5,750,000
Anam .. ..	440,500	21,000,000
French Cochín-China .. ..	59,457	1,600,000
Cambodia .. ..	83,861	890,000
Independent Malacca .. ..	81,500	300,000
Straits Settlements .. ..	3,472	350,000
	2,167,440	36,963,000

The East India Islands are subdivided thus:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Kilos.	
Andamans .. ..	6,497	14,500
Nicobars .. ..	1,772	5,500
Samos Islands, &c. .. ..	1,638,757	27,343,000
Philippines .. ..	235,585	7,450,000
		34,813,000

Professor Wagner animadverts with good reason on the careless manner in which the statistics for the Dutch East Indies are published. There is no want of such statistics, but for want of scientific editors and proper arrangement they are almost practically useless. Indeed, the most varied and inconsistent figures are given in official publications in these islands, and this want of method gives the geographer and statistician a feeling of despair. Herr Wagner, with infinite trouble, has sought to reduce this chaos to order, and this part of the work will, no doubt, be regarded as the best authority on the subject we possess.

Turning to Australia and Polynesia, the editors notice the recent annexation to Queensland of several islands in Torres Straits, and give the population of the colonies as follows for 1878:—New South Wales, 693,743; Victoria, 879,442; South Australia, 248,795; Northern Territory, (1879), 3,265; Queensland, 210,510; West Australia, 28,166; Tasmania, 109,947; New Zealand (end of 1878), 476,642; including Maoris, which is considerably larger than the census figure of March of the same year, 414,412. From careful estimates the area of New Guinea is set down as 785,362 square kilometres, or, with the neighbouring islands, 807,956 square kilometres, and the population 600,000. The following table relates to the Oceanic islands:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Kilos.	
Melanesia .. ..	145,855	606,800
Polynesia .. ..	9,791	130,400
Sandwich Islands .. ..	17,008	58,000
Micronesia .. ..	3,530	84,650
	176,184	879,850

As the result of a new estimate of the area of Africa, the editors give 29,283,390 square kilometres. This area is, according to Dr. Nachtigal, so far as productiveness is concerned, divided as follows:—Forest and cultivable land, 6,376,725 square kilometres; savannas and light woods, 6,235,378; bush, 1,572,431; steppe, 4,269,027; desert, 10,659,133, of which the Sahara occupies upwards of 9,000,000 kilometres, including many oases and cultivated patches. The area and population of Africa are divided among the chief countries and regions as follows:—

	Area.	Population.
	Square Kilos.	
Morocco (including Swat, &c.) .. ..	812,332	7,329,000
Algeria .. ..	667,065	2,867,626
Tunisi .. ..	116,348	2,100,000
Tripoli, &c. .. ..	1,033,349	1,010,000
Sahara .. ..	6,183,426	2,850,000
Egypt and dependencies .. ..	2,986,915	17,420,000
Central Soudan .. ..	1,714,983	31,770,000
West Soudan and Upper Guinea .. ..	1,993,046	43,600,000
Abyssinia .. ..	333,279	3,000,000
Harar, Galli, &c. .. ..	1,897,038	15,500,000
North Equatorial Regions .. ..	2,254,980	27,000,000
South Equatorial Regions .. ..	1,717,900	20,000,000
Independent South Africa .. ..	1,500,000	13,286,350
Portuguese East Africa .. ..	991,150	1,000,000
Portuguese West Africa .. ..	78,470*	9,000,000
Orange Free State .. ..	111,497	75,000
British South Africa .. ..	968,418	1,966,000
African Islands .. ..	626,054	3,892,400

\* Angola.

For some of these figures we ought to say that Behm and Wagner are not responsible, as we have put them together from various data, not always complete, furnished by them; the areas especially are much too small, as for some regions no estimates are given, and the lakes are not included.

Coming to America, we have British North America, with a total area (including Polar lands) of 3,248,078 square miles, and a population of 3,839,470; Bermudas, 19½ square miles, and, in 1838, 13,812 inhabitants; French possessions in North America, 90 square miles, population (1877), 5,338. For the United States the new census returns of the year were not available; but from a careful calculation the editors think that for 1880 a population of 48,500,000 is not too much to expect, exclusive of 300,000 Indians; the area of the States is given as 3,603,884 square miles. The area of Mexico is given as 1,921,240 square kilometres, and the present population as 9,485,600. Central American States, 547,308 square kilometres, and 2,759,200 population; West Indies, 244,478 square kilometres, 4,412,700 population; Guiana, 461,977 square kilometres, 345,800 population; Venezuela, 1,137,615 square kilometres, 1,784,197 population; United States of Colombia, 837,000 square kilometres, 3,000,000 of population; Ecuador, 643,295 square kilometres, with population (1878), 1,146,000; Peru, 1,119,941 square kilometres, with population (1876), 3,050,000—this is inclusive of the recent addition of the Bolivian littoral; Chili, 321,462 square kilometres, population (1878), 2,400,000; Argentine Republic, including Patagonia, 3,051,706, population (1879) probably 2,400,000; Uruguay, 186,920 square kilometres, population (1877), 440,000; Paraguay, 238,920 square kilometres, with population (1876), 293,844; Brazil, 8,337,218 square kilometres, population 11,108,291; Falkland Islands, area according to official statement, 6,500 square miles, but more probably according to Behm and Wagner, 4,840 square miles, population (1878), 1,394. As the editors greatly distrust the official estimates of area in the South American States, they give the result of a new planimetric measurement by Dr. Wisotzki, of Königsberg; this gives the total area, including islands, as 17,752,303 square kilometres, nearly 8,000,000 kilometres less than the official statistics make it.

Finally we have the statistics of the Polar regions. The total area of the regions on or around the Arctic circle is given as 3,859,400, the only regularly-inhabited lands, so far as we know, being Iceland and Greenland, the former with 72,000, and the latter 10,000 inhabitants. No doubt there are a few wanderers in the Arctic regions of North America, but we have no means of ascertaining their number. The South Polar regions are credited with an area of 660,000 square kilometres, in which, so far as known, there are no inhabitants.

Such, then, is a condensed résumé of the valuable collection of statistics contained in the new issue of the "Bevölkerung der Erde," which may be taken as the most trustworthy statement we have as to the present area and population of our globe.

LIBERAL MEETING AT CHELTENHAM.—Baron de

Ferrières, member for Cheltenham, addressed a crowded meeting in the lecture-room of the Reform Club last night. He claimed for the Government that, notwithstanding the difficulties that had been thrown in their way, they had more than fulfilled the promises they had made, four important and five smaller measures representing the good work of a short Session. It was an amount of work due mainly to the determination of the Prime Minister to carry out the promise he had made; and though there had been a failure to carry through the Irish Disturbance Bill, the fault was due to the House of Lords, whose opposition to the clearly-expressed will of the representatives of the people had raised the inquiry whether the Upper House now existed in the form best suited to the needs of the country. The policy of the Government in preferring home to foreign affairs was the distinguishing quality of a Liberal rule. The less they meddled with foreign countries the better, and they might be satisfied, with reference to Eastern affairs, that if Turkey were left alone, and not propped up by English money, she would speedily collapse. In the settlement of pending home questions the leadership of Mr. Gladstone was all-important; without it they would be put back for years, and it was of vital importance to the Liberal party that he should preserve his strength for the service of his country. There was a feeling that the Liberals desired to interfere with the rights of property; but it was not so. It was the privileges, and not the rights of any class that they attacked; and Liberal legislation had the effect of increasing, not diminishing, the value of property, and so far from revolutionizing the country, but for the measures the Liberals had passed revolution would have taken place—revolution prompted by desolate homes and starving families. A recent Blue-book had shown that whereas the population of Great Britain had increased by three millions and a half in ten years, the food-producing power of the country had decreased. There were 3,000,000 acres less land laid down with wheat, and but for free trade and other Liberal measures, the people must have starved and the Constitution have suffered more seriously than by any Liberal reform. Having referred to the measures still required to be passed, he concluded with the hope that Liberals throughout the country would urge upon Mr. Gladstone the necessity of husbanding his strength for the great work still before him. The president of the club proposed, and Mr. Heath seconded, the following resolution:—"That after hearing their member's account of the Session just closed, this meeting not only desires to convey its best thanks to Mr. Gladstone and the members of his Ministry for the excellent measures they have already succeeded in passing, but ventures to express the earnest hope that Mr. Gladstone will not overtax his powers, as his presence and direction in the House will be indispensable to the carrying of those Liberal measures still needed to establish the welfare of the country." This resolution was passed amid much cheering, as was also another approving the votes of their member in Parliament.

ing the present war establishment of 800,000, was coming on in the two Parliaments, and it was suggested that the military authorities might make up the difference by various administrative measures. The Minister of War pleaded the impossibility of doing this without deranging the whole internal economy of the army and impairing its efficiency, and no agreement could be come to in the preliminary Cabinet Council. In the Council under the presidency of the Emperor himself the Minister of War received the order to devise administrative measures by which the increased expense could be made up, and this was done by sending a number of infantry men in their third year on longer furloughs, by reducing the number of reserves to be called out during the year, and by other similar measures. It seems now that the Minister of War thinks it quite impossible to continue these measures for next year, as they would jeopardize the efficiency of the army. The struggle between the sword and the purse thus turns upon the same point as last year. It remains to be seen what decision will be arrived at this year, and whether some understanding can be come to, or whether the decision will again be deferred for the Cabinet Council under the presidency of His Majesty, which is to take place to-morrow or the day after. Each side will, before meeting again in council, have had the opportunity of submitting its views and the impressions derived from the first meeting yesterday.

To-day the German Constitutional party meets in Brunn. That of Nether Austria met about six weeks ago in Mödling, near Vienna, and invitations have just been issued for a similar gathering of the adherents of the party in Bohemia to be held on the 3d of October in Carlsbad. Although scarcely a year passes without one or more of such gatherings, or a meeting of the whole party, a great deal more importance is attributed to them this year than formerly, and special importance is attributed to the meeting now convened in Brunn and to that to be held later in Prague. Nor is this surprising. The first session of the new Reichsrath which met last autumn has ended in what might be called a drawn battle between the Constitutional and the Autonomist parties. Although on the subject of the secret service money the former succeeded in carrying its point, the victory had no political consequences, and in all other matters the opposite side had the better of it. The leaders of the Constitutional party may be quite right in thinking that the Autonomists do not mean to be satisfied with the little they have attained, so that the struggle is likely to be renewed next Session on a larger scale. It may be questioned whether the Constitutional party has gained or lost by the retirement of their members from the Cabinet, as their position as opponents of the Government has gained in clearness. The presence of the men of their party in the Cabinet was a tolerable guarantee that the Autonomists would not be allowed to go beyond a certain point, while now the Ministry, which depends on the support of the Autonomists alone, may not be as strong in resisting its opponents as it was before. The Constitutional party must thus rely in the coming struggle entirely on its own strength. Closely balanced in numbers as the two parties are, much will depend on organization, and if the present meetings of the party can do anything in this respect, the chances of the Constitutional party will certainly be greatly improved. Unfortunately, the attempts made hitherto with this object have done but little. The four factions into which the party was divided in the last Diet were, indeed, reduced to two—the Liberal and the Progressist—and these two made a sort of compact as to acting in common on Constitutional questions, but at the first test the arrangements broke down, and towards the end of the Session the two factions stood face to face as strangers, if not foes. Yet the affinity between them is greater than that between the three factions of the Autonomist party—the Czechs, the Poles, and the Conservatives—who on many questions differ in principle, while the difference between the two factions of the Constitutional party is only one of degree, having reference to the question whether advance should be more or less rapid. If in these party meetings they succeed in merging these secondary differences, break up the separation into two clubs, and lay the foundation of a compact party, they will have gathered fresh strength for the coming struggle; while if they waste their time in declamations against the Ministry and impotent protests, they may come out of the next Session in a worse plight than they have come out of the last.

## ITALY.

ROME, SEPT. 20.

This day ten years ago Rome passed from under the dominion of the Popes, but it has not been until this, the tenth, anniversary that the completion of the unity of Italy accomplished on that day has been celebrated in a manner worthy of such an event. The 20th of September, 1870, crowned the work which had been the one object of Cavour's labours—the one hope of him who is now called "the Great King," and the aspirations of the great mass of the Italian people; and yet, when its first anniversary came round, the occasion was ignored by the Italian Government and by the Municipality of the city which, except for a few votes, had in its *Plébiscite* declared unani- mously for union with Italy under the Constitutional Government of Victor Emmanuel. The day was indeed celebrated in a manner not unworthy of the occasion; but, as I wrote you at the time, that celebration was left entirely in the hands of the people, to do as they pleased and what they pleased. The next year and the years following the Government looked still more coldly on that commemoration which should have been an unanimous, and indeed a national expression, and the 20th of September, instead of being kept as the day when Italy's unity was completed, was allowed to merge into no more than the anniversary of the breach of Porta Pia, one of the least glorious of Italy's military achievements, and an occasion for mere party demonstration. All this was the consequence of that wide divergence of opinion between the Italian Prime Minister of the time and the party of action, with whom at least one distinguished member of the Cabinet sided. That which should be the great national festival of united Italy has never been worthily celebrated until now. To this the proper alternation of political parties has gradually led. The men of the Left have not proved to be those revolutionary characters, antagonistic to the Monarchy, which they were described to be, and the fact is now evident that the moral unity of Italy is established on a firmer basis than party spirit would admit even five years ago. When Prince Emanuel Ruspini became Syndic of Rome, in 1877, he inaugurated an official participation in the celebration of the day as far as the Municipality was concerned, and on this tenth anniversary, a general movement having been initiated by the press of all parties, and especially by the *Liberta*, the Cabinet Ministers and all the civil and military authorities followed the lead, and accepted the invitation of the Municipality to do honour to the occasion.

When once the thing was decided upon preparations on a grand scale were commenced, and the *fête* has been really splendid. Starting for the Capitol, I found the streets crowded with people and the houses decorated with national flags. Along the sides of the Piazza Ara Coeli no fewer than 84 working men's and other societies with their banners were drawn up. At the foot of the ascent to the

Capitol stood the splendid State carriages of the Roman Municipality, which have been shut up since 1870, and as I reached the spot the band of the Vigilis was heard in the Piazza above, and there came down the incline in a group the most splendid display of silken banners I have ever seen. They were those sent by 54 of the Italian provinces and cities to Rome on her becoming the capital of the kingdom. Behind them appeared 14 others as faded as these were fresh and bright, but very grand-looking nevertheless. They were the flags of the regions into which Rome is divided, and like the carriages they have not seen daylight for ten years. Such were briefly the more conspicuous elements of the procession, which, as soon as the Municipal officers were seated, moved on to the Pantheon to place wreaths at the tomb of Victor Emmanuel. Assembled already were all the Cabinet Ministers, excepting those of Public Instruction and Commerce, the representatives of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, with their Presidents, the representatives of other official bodies, and a large number of political and military men, all in *grande tenue*, with their orders and decorations. The scene in the Piazza was most imposing, and that in the Pantheon most solemn. From here the procession, increased by the handsome modern State carriages of the Italian Senate and Chamber, and those of the Ministers and other authorities moved on through the streets, which were densely crowded with spectators, to the Porta Pia, where, after wreaths had been hung around the tablet bearing the names of those who fell, brief but admirable discourses were delivered from a platform on which all the authorities were assembled by Signor Armellini, Pro-Syndic, and Signor Cairoli. The Prime Minister was loudly cheered as he rose to speak, and the applause was deafening as he concluded with the words—"Applauding, then, the initiative taken by the Municipality, I salute Rome with an *Evviva* to the King, so well worthy of taking up the glorious paternal legacy. *Viva il Re! Viva Roma!*" Great preparations had been made in the Piazza del Popolo and Piazza Colonna, which were to have been brilliantly lighted up this evening with thousands of Chinese lanterns hung from garlands stretched across and across; but, alas! the ceremony at Porta Pia was scarcely concluded when heavy rain came on and continued throughout the whole afternoon.

On this 20th of September all the foreign Embassies and Ministries have for the first time since 1870 displayed their national flags with that of Italy.

## TURKEY.

VIENNA, SEPT. 20.

According to accounts from Constantinople in the *Politische Correspondenz*, the late Ministerial change there was due to the influence of the Russian Ambassador. The Queen's Speech at the close of the British Parliament, of which the full text had just been received, had caused great irritation at the Palace, and M. de Novikoff, who had an audience with the Sultan, used this moment to bring Said and Server, commonly called Serveroff into power. But he must, indeed, be a wise man who knows how a Ministerial change has been brought about in Constantinople.

## MONTENEGRO AND ALBANIA.

GRAVOSA, SEPT. 20.

Captain Lord Walter Kerr arrived at Scutari on Sunday, and delivered his despatches and the summons to the Consular body to remove their families to a place of safety. It is believed that there are not in all above 12 or 14 persons for whom it would be unsafe to remain.

Her Majesty's ship *Iris* arrived this afternoon from Brindisi, and leaves for Malta to-morrow.

Last night his Imperial Highness the Archduke Charles Stephen received the Admirals and their staffs at dinner on board the *Custoza*.

The weather is hot and sultry, and a sirocco is coming on.

VIENNA, SEPT. 20.

No fresh intelligence has come indicating any alteration in the situation. The Porte, it seems, is still debating, the Albanians are gathering, and Riza Pasha is allowing things to take their course. The two latter circumstances are probably of more importance than the former and the delay it causes in returning the Porte's reply to the last Note of the Powers. As for the actual Albanian force, all those thousands reported as being assembled may be estimated at a very much smaller number. Although some reinforcements have been received from a distance, these consist of bodies of 100, or at most 200 men, while some of the detachments are even smaller. The actual difficulty of overcoming eventual resistance must, therefore, not be overrated. As you have already been informed, the Montenegrins must be prepared to overcome the resistance in the first instance alone, with moral, but no material, assistance from the fleet. If, however, they should not be able to do this without help further steps will then be taken. There is an impression that in that case some of the ships would take Montenegrin troops on board to land them before Dulcigno, and take the Albanian positions in the rear. This might prove a good military device, but the question is how it would accord with the instructions given to the Admirals, which forbid them to land troops. As the possibility of a conflict draws nearer the uneasiness as to its possible consequences becomes greater, for every one knows that the course of events lies in the hands of diplomacy only until the first shot is fired.

## THE UNITED STATES.

(BY ANGLO-AMERICAN CABLES.)

PHILADELPHIA, SEPT. 20.

At Corning, Ohio, on Saturday, a mob of 1,000 miners on strike attempted to drive some negro miners from the coal pits. The attack having been anticipated, troops had been sent for and the negroes also armed. When the miners on strike attacked the colliery buildings on Saturday night the troops fired, causing confusion and a retreat. Ten men were seriously wounded. More troops were obtained, and another outbreak which occurred on Sunday was speedily quieted by the troops. Three of the men on strike were injured. Quiet reigns to-day, and the negroes are at work.

The Irish agitator Michael Davitt is making speeches in California. He arrived at Oakland on Saturday. He was escorted to a meeting by a torchlight procession, and spoke to a large audience.

We have received the following telegram through Reuter's Agency:—

## FRANCE.

PARIS, SEPT. 20.

The *Journal Officiel* to-day publishes an official note formally announcing the fact that M. de Freycinet had placed his resignation in the hands of the President. The other members of the Cabinet have also sent in their resignations, but will continue to conduct the affairs of their respective departments pending the formation of the new Cabinet. It is expected that the letter addressed by M. de Freycinet to President Grévy, tendering his resignation, will be officially published.

Although numerous conjectures are in circulation respecting the constitution of the new Cabinet, it may be stated with certainty that nothing has yet been definitively decided. The latest reports distribute the portfolios as follows:—M. Ferry, Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Challemel-Lacour or M. Paul Bert, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Sadi Carnot, Minister of Public Works; and Admiral Dupré, Minister of Marine.

A contradiction is given this evening to a statement published here that Herr Von Radowitz, the German Ambassador to France, was about to quit Paris on leave of absence.

A strike has occurred among the cabinetmakers here, 2,000 of whom have ceased work.

The *République Française* to-day, commenting on the letter

PHILADELPHIA was last year one of the two healthiest of the great cities of the world—a fact which cannot fail to interest all who contemplate visiting this city during the Centennial exhibition. The Registrar General of London, in his annual report for 1875, recently published, says that he has reports from more than twenty great cities representing all but two of the great nations of the world, and these reports show that in the year the mortality was lowest in Philadelphia and Christiania, Norway. These reports are all compiled in correspondence with the English system, so that the comparisons made are strictly true as comparisons.

North Penna. R. R. 11  
North Wales Hotel for Mr. WALKER. 2t



**FOR SALE—BEAUTIFUL COUNTRY**  
Seat and Farm of 140 acres at station on  
the Media Railroad, 8 miles from Philadelphia.  
tenement houses, saw mill and barns, mansion  
17 rooms, with every city convenience; stable,  
liard rooms, &c. ; post-office, church, telegraph  
fice and station within one square of house; cha  
for speculators.

ISAAC L. MILLER,  
707 Sansom street

sw\*14



**FOR SALE—MODERN HOUSE OF 15**  
rooms in the borough of Media; every city  
convenience; one acre, fruit, shade, &c. Pho  
graph at office of

ISAAC L. MILLER,  
707 Sansom street

sw\*15



**COUNTRY SEAT FOR SALE, ON**  
West Chester R. R., near station, Cottage,  
11 rooms, hot and cold water from spring,  
kinds of fruit, shrubbery and evergreens, Ches

high and heating high and heating

In the following statement will be found a tabular expression for the past year of the population, number of deaths, and the ratio of death per thousand, of nine of the principal cities of the United States.

Cities.	Estimated Population.	Deaths.	Rate per 1,000 living.
New York.....	1,040,000	29,084	27.96
Philadelphia.....	750,000	15,224	20.29
St. Louis.....	450,000	8,551	19.00
Brooklyn.....	435,314	10,968	25.19
Baltimore.....	305,000	7,614	24.96
New Orleans.....	278,060	7,505	37.05
Boston.....	276,579	7,869	28.45
Cincinnati.....	246,923	5,641	22.84
Richmond.....	60,705	2,037	33.39

—Baltimore Underwriter.

1866.—*Seltmann*, Die Anthrakosis der Lungen bei den Kohlenbergarbeitern. Deutsches Arch. f. klin. Med. Band II. Heft 3. 1866.—*Virchow*, Ueber das Lungenschwarz. Archiv, Band 35. H. I. 1866,—*Rosenthal*, Wiener medic. Jahrb. (Schmidt's Jahrbücher Band 132. 1866.—*Koschlakoff*, Zur Frage über die Entstehung des Pigmentes der Lunge. Virchow's Archiv. Band 35. Heft I. 1866.—*Knauff*, Das Pigment der Respirationsorgane. Virchow's Archiv. Band 39. Heft 3. 1867.—*Slavjansky*, Experimentelle Beiträge zur Pneumonokoniosis-Lehre. Virchow's Archiv. Band 48. Heft 2. 1869.—*Merkel*, Casuistische Beiträge zur Pneumonokoniosis-Lehre. Deutsches Arch. f. klin. Med. Bd. VI., VIII. u. IX. 1869 bis 1872.—*Meinel*, Ueber die Erkrankung der Lunge durch Kieselstaubinhalation. Erlanger Dissertation 1869. *Hirt*, Krankheiten der Arbeiter. Abtheil. I.

experience has been discouraging.

The data showing the sanitary state of thirteen leading European and Asiatic cities are taken from quarterly reports, and are as follows:—

CITIES.	First Qr.		Second Qr.		Third Qr.		Fourth Qr.		n Rate.
	No. Deaths.	Rate per 1,000 living.	No. Deaths.	Rate per 1,000 living.	No. Deaths.	Rate per 1,000 living.	No. Deaths.	Rate per 1,000 living.	
London.....	18,970	22.7	16,690	20	18,234	21.8	20,898	25.0	22.4
Paris.....	11,088	24.4	10,555	23	10,589	23.0	10,269	22.5	23.2
Brussels.....	1,218	26.5	1,144	25	1,190	25.8	1,015	22.0	24.8
Berlin.....	5,745	29.9	6,699	33	8,627	41.8	4,913	25.8	32.6
Vienna.....	5,335	34.4	4,804	30	7,004	43.6	3,667	22.8	32.7
Rome.....	1,963	32.2	1,724	28	1,827	30.0	1,648	27.0	29.3
Florence.....	1,542	31.6	.....	.....	1,270	30.5	.....	.....	31.0
Turin.....	1,615	30.4	1,524	29	1,267	24.1	1,122	22.8	26.6
Calcutta.....	3,643	32.1	2,606	23	2,446	21.9	2,687	26.0	25.8
Bombay.....	4,448	27.6	3,906	24	3,674	22.8	3,592	22.2	24.2
Madras.....	3,702	37.6	3,684	37	3,485	35.2	.....	.....	36.6
Amsterdam...	.....	.....	1,725	25	1,604	23.2	1,480	23.0	23.7
Copenhagen..	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,286	25.8	.....	.....	25.8

15/5/91

the original disease and the subsequent one. A careful consideration of the deaths which are ascribed to consumption, with reference to the remote cause of the disease which produced them, will help to elucidate the subject. In Germany, the medical examinations for the life insurance companies are made with the most anxious care, and yet it is astonishing to note the extent to which consumption figures in the mortality returns of the companies. This cannot possibly be explained unless reference is had to the effects left by zymotic diseases behind them. Family history is inquired into upon the examination, and in coming to a decision the facts in regard to it are duly weighed. The consumption, when death occurs from that cause, must either have already had its beginning at the time of the examination or it must have been developed during the period covered by the insurance. If in existence, its presence is ordinarily revealed at the examination by some external sign, or can be discovered, even by a tyro in medical art, through per-

---

\* From the Insurance Times of October 1, 1874.

In England (Cameron)

average length of life

39.91 males

41.85 females

39.91

41.85

2 81.76  
40.88

Scotland a little longer —

"SURPASSING SALUBRITY" OF PHILADELPHIA. — In the following list of cities, embracing the most populous of those of the Old World, as well as in our own country, Philadelphia stands in the fore-front in the report of the British Registrar General for health and salubrity. His computations, based upon the official tables of mortality, make the death rate as follows per thousand persons: Philadelphia, 22.1; London, 22.7; Paris, 24.4; Bombay, 27.6; Berlin, 29.9; New York, 30.1; Turin, 30.4; Florence, 31.6; Rome, 32.2; Vienna, 34.4; Madras, 37.6. In commenting upon the "surpassing salubrity" of Philadelphia as exhibited in the foregoing figures, the New York Mail attributes it mainly to the absence from our city of the tenement-house system, "the pest and curse of most large cities," and to our abundant supply of small, cheap dwellings. Both these inferences are correct; but something is also due to the different habits of our people, arising from the fact so often pointed out in these columns, that the masses of our people are engaged in *useful* occupations, in which, money being earned slowly by hard industry and saved by thrift, there is less temptation or inclination to live the "fast lives" which lead to rapid deaths. 1873.

THE Popular Science Monthly says: Dr. Charles P. Russell gives a tabulated statement of the mortality of the various States of the Union, from which we borrow the following regarding the death rates of various cities: The highest death rate in 1873 was exhibited by Memphis, where the deaths were 46.6 in each 1000 inhabitants. Other cities followed in this order: Savannah, 39.2; Vicksburg, 36.5; Troy, 34; Hoboken, 39.9; New York, 32.7; Newark, 31.6; New Orleans, 30.6; Boston, 28.5. The rate for Philadelphia was only 26.1; Brooklyn, 28.1; St. Louis, 21; Chicago, 27.6; Baltimore, 25.1; Cincinnati, 20.5; San Francisco, 17.2. This compares not unfavorably with the mortuary statistics of British cities, where the lowest rate was 21.4; that of London, Bombay and Calcutta, show only 29.2 and 25, respectively. The highest known death rate prevailed in Valparaiso, Chili, 66.9.

of  
1872

t  
o  
s  
d  
c

2  
1873

VITAL STATISTICS OF PARIS.—During the year 1882, there were 21,411 marriages celebrated in Paris, as follows: Between young men and maids, 17,579; between young men and widows, 1,206; between widowers and maids, 1,710; between widowers and widows, 904; between divorced persons, 12.

The births numbered 62,581, there being 31,828 males and 30,753 females, or 103.5 masculine births per 100 feminine.

The deaths numbered 58,702, the males being to the females as 116.1 to 100. The births were to the deaths as 106.6 to 100. Of the total number of deaths, 17,411 were of children under five years of age. Epidemic diseases were the cause of 7,579 of the deaths, typhoid fever being credited with 3,352, smallpox with 661, measles with 1,018, scarlet fever with 158, and diphtheria with as many as 2,390. Consumption was the cause given in 10,342 cases. There were 767 cases of suicide, 612 of the individuals being males and 155 females. The still-births registered amounted to 5,170.

1883

RECENT MORTALITY IN EUROPEAN CAPITALS.—M. Motteroz, of the Bureau of Statistics, Paris, France, gives some interesting comparisons, formed in reviewing the mortality returns of the capitals of Europe for the first quarter of the present year. London, with its population of nearly four millions of inhabitants, shows the smallest death-rate—22.1 per 1,000 annually—and this although three epidemic diseases—measles, scarlet fever, and whooping-cough—occasioned a very considerable number of deaths during the period. St. Petersburg, on the other hand, gives the highest mortality-rate—40.6 per 1,000 of its inhabitants yearly. Typhoid fever and diphtheria prevailed in this city with great intensity. Berlin gives a mortality-rate equal to 24.3 per 1,000 per annum. During the three months under review, croup caused 663 deaths in its population of 1,200,000. The rate of Brussels was 25.7; of Paris, 27.3; of Stockholm, 27.8; of Vienna, 31.1; and of Madrid, 36.4. The mortality in this last capital is always high. Measles, alone, was the cause of 402 deaths during the quarter, and this is regarded as an enormous mortality for a population of 400,000 inhabitants.

To the Editor of THE MEDICAL NEWS.

SIR: I notice in THE MEDICAL NEWS of April 21st, an article from Dr. Alban Kite, concerning the effects of bromide of potassium upon cerebral congestion following a dose of quinine. I would respectfully call the attention of Dr. Kite to the fact that the plan of using bromide of potassium, to prevent the unpleasant effects of quinine, is by no means new. In this portion of the South, where we "live among the fevers," and hence use a great deal of quinine, we have been in the habit for several years of either combining the bromide with quinine, or giving the quinine in hydrobromic acid, which I think is a preferable plan. I can heartily join Dr. Kite in saying that the bromide does frequently relieve the intense cerebral congestion produced sometimes by quinine, and I think it particularly adapted to children, but with them I should give hydrobromic acid the precedence. My friend Dr. Thomas M. Calley first used the bromide of potassium with quinine in Palestine, Texas, some years ago, and since that time we have all used quinine and bromide together, with considerable satisfaction. The combination is an excellent one, especially if the patient be of a nervous temperament.

Very truly yours,

J. WEBB DOUGLAS, M.D.

PALESTINE, TEXAS, April 30, 1883.

OFFICIAL LIST OF CHANGES OF STATIONS AND DUTIES  
OF OFFICERS OF THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT, U. S.  
ARMY, FROM MAY 7 TO MAY 14, 1883.

BARTHOLF, JOHN H., *Captain and Assistant Surgeon*.—The extension of leave of absence granted April 3, 1883, further extended four months.—*Par. 8, S. O. 105, A. G. O., May 7, 1883.*

BILLINGS, JOHN S., *Major and Surgeon*.—By direction of the Secretary of War, to represent the Medical Department of the Army at the annual meeting of the American Medical Association, to be held at Cleveland, Ohio, June 5, 1883.—*Par. 10, S. O. 105, A. G. O., May 7, 1883.*

FORWOOD, WM. H., *Major and Surgeon*.—By direction of the Secretary of War, to represent the Medical Department of the Army at the annual meeting of the American Medical Association, to be held at Cleveland, Ohio, June 5, 1883.—*Par. 10, S. O. 105, A. G. O., May 7, 1883.*

SMITH, JOS. R., *Major and Surgeon*.—By direction of the Secretary of War, to represent the Medical Department of the Army at the annual meeting of the American Medical Association, to be held at Cleveland, Ohio, June 5, 1883.—*Par. 10, S. O. 105, A. G. O., May 7, 1883.*

THE MEDICAL NEWS will be pleased to receive early intelligence of local events of general medical interest, or of matters

Vital Statistics of  
U. S. Census 1870.

Total popula. -  $38\frac{1}{2}$  millions (see other paper)

Deaths, current year, 492,263 (500,000)

about 1349 per diem -  
not far from 1 per minute.

March most fatal month, by 1000 deaths

March, April, May, most fatal quarter, by 13000 -

Births, 1,100,475 - 3000 per diem

Blind, 20,000. Deafmutes, 16,000.

Idiots 24,000 - Insane, 37,000.

Persons over 80, 150,000. Over 90, 7000.

Over 100, 3500. Over 80, females 12,000 in excess.

Over 90, females 1200 in excess, Over 100, 1000 ditto.

mortality from  
Least Consumption - Florida, Middle Georgia  
& S. W. Virginia, near Sulphur Springs.

$$\frac{4}{5}$$

MS.  
Census

$$\begin{array}{r} 24 \\ \hline 1440 \end{array}$$

1870

$$\begin{array}{r} 1,100,475 \overline{) 38,250,000} \quad (34 \\ \underline{33 \quad 04 \quad 425} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 5.235750 \\ \underline{4401900} \\ 833850 \end{array}$$

1870

MS.  
Census

$$\begin{array}{r} 1138 \\ \hline 34 - \end{array}$$

the Waverly Convalescent Home warmly commended in a letter published in a recent number of the *Lancet*.

This home is said by the correspondent to be very complete; "indeed," he says, "I have never seen a more model institution than the Waverly Convalescent Home." As some of our readers may not be acquainted with this home which excites the enthusiasm of a "roving correspondent" from England, we venture to explain that it is the convalescent house of the Massachusetts General Hospital. It owes its existence chiefly to the philanthropic labors of Miss Russell, and is devoted to the reception of the *convalescent poor* from the hospital, pay patients being excluded. It is situated at Waverly, seven miles from Boston. It is truly a "model institution," as described by the *Lancet* correspondent, and in this case all the praise bestowed is well deserved. It were well, if all our great public hospitals were provided with "homes" in the country to which their convalescents could be sent, to more effectively recuperate than is possible under the sanitary conditions usually surrounding this class of subjects in our cities.

WE have the pleasure, through the courtesy of Col. Seaton, of laying before the profession a *résumé* of the mortality statistics of the United States which have been collected by the United States Census Bureau, in accordance with plans and forms prepared by Surgeon John S. Billings, U. S. A. These statistics are particularly valuable, since they furnish us for the first time with reliable information as to the death-rate of the whole country, which, it is gratifying to find, compares favorably with that of other civilized countries.

## SPECIAL ARTICLE.

### MORTALITY STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE Compendium of the 10th Census which is now nearly through the press, and will probably be ready for issue by the time Congress meets, is a very interesting document to statisticians, not only for what it contains, but for the glimpse which it gives of what may be expected in the full quarto reports.

Through the courtesy of Col. Seaton, we are able to give our readers so much of the text of the Compendium regarding the mortality statistics as is of special interest to physicians, independent of the tables which belong with it.

The total number of deaths recorded and tabulated as occurring in the United States during the census year is 756,893, being a death-rate of 15.1 to the thousand. This death-rate is decidedly higher than that given in the census of 1860, viz., 12.5, and of 1870, viz., 12.8 per thousand, but this

does not indicate any actual increase in the number of deaths as compared with the living population. It shows, rather, that the efforts made in the census of 1880 to obtain more complete returns of deaths than had been collected in previous enumerations have been to some extent successful.

Excluding the States of Massachusetts, and New Jersey, and also the following named cities: Baltimore, Bangor, Brooklyn, Chicago, Cincinnati, Charleston, Cleveland, Indianapolis, Louisville, Milwaukee, Mobile, Nashville, New Orleans, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Providence, Richmond, St. Louis, San Francisco, and Wilmington, the number of deaths actually reported by the enumerators was 520,339. To these returns of deaths furnished by the enumerators, there were added from registers furnished by physicians throughout the country, 61,020 additional cases of death. For the States of Massachusetts and New Jersey, and the cities above mentioned, the State and municipal registration records of deaths were copied and used in the tabulations. These records are based on a regular system of registration, and on burial permits, and are therefore probably very nearly accurate. The records give 175,534 deaths.

In order to obtain some positive data from which might be calculated the amount of deficiency in the enumerators' returns of deaths, their returns for the State of Massachusetts, excluding the city of Boston, and for the whole State of New Jersey, have been tabulated and compared with the records furnished from the State registration office, the total deficiency in which is considered not to exceed 2 per cent. The result of this comparison is, that for the State of Massachusetts, excluding Boston, the deficiency in the enumerators' returns amounts to 26.42 per cent. of the whole number returned by them. For the State of New Jersey, the deficiency is 34.45 per cent. It may be considered certain that in no State is the deficiency in the enumerators' returns less than it is in Massachusetts.

The deficiency is greatest in the case of infants, of females, and of foreigners, and increases in a tolerably uniform ratio for each month going backwards in time from the date of taking the census. It is also greater in the more thinly settled sections of the country.

If we take the enumerators' returns, as corrected by the addition of cases obtained from physicians' registers, viz., 2,286 for Massachusetts, and 1,636 for New Jersey, the deficiencies thus corrected amount to 13.34 per cent. of the corrected returns for Massachusetts, and 20.14 per cent. for New Jersey.

If we suppose that after the addition of the 61,020 cases of deaths reported by physicians, to the returns of the enumerators, these last, excluding the States and cities above mentioned, are still deficient as much as 30 per cent, which is believed to be the maximum, the result will be an average mortality for the whole country of 18.2 per thousand of living population per annum. The actual mortality for the whole country, during the census year, was not less than 17, nor greater than 19 per thousand. This rate compares favorably with that of all other

civilized countries. The death-rate in the rural population of England, comprising ten and one-half millions of people, in the year 1880, was 18.5 per thousand. For the whole of England, for the same year, it was 20.5 per thousand. For Scotland, in 1878, it was 21.3 per thousand. In the mainland rural group of Scotland, for the same period, it was 17.3 per thousand.

The low death-rate in this country is considered to be due to the comparative absence of over-crowding, and the more general and equal distribution of the means of supporting life, including, especially, the abundant food supply of good quality for all classes of people.

The most valuable information furnished by the present census, in regard to the health of the country, is derived from those tables which show the relations of various causes of death to sex, age, and locality, since the conclusions which may be drawn from these are comparatively slightly affected by the deficiencies above referred to. The form of the Compendium does not admit the giving of these tables, which are extensive and elaborate; but a specimen of some of the deductions which may be obtained from them will be given by way of illustration.

#### COLOR.

In a population of 43,402,970 whites, there are recorded 640,191 deaths, giving a death-rate of 14.74 per thousand. In a population of 6,752,813 colored, there are recorded 116,702 deaths, giving a death-rate of 17.28 per thousand. Taking those States east of the Mississippi river which have the largest colored population, viz., Alabama, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Louisiana (including that part west of the river), we find that the total white population is 8,053,962, and the number of deaths recorded is 113,110, giving a death-rate of 14.04 per thousand. The colored population of the same States is 5,303,267, and the number of deaths among these reported 91,328, giving a death-rate of 17.22 per thousand. It is in this section of country that the deficiencies in the enumerators' returns of deaths are probably the greatest, and they are also probably greater among the colored than among the white population. The difference in mortality between the white and colored is especially well marked in the Southern States, and is largely due to the extensive number of deaths among infants in the colored population.

#### SEX.

Of the total number of deaths reported, 391,960 were of males, and 364,933 were of females, the total living population being 25,518,820 males and 24,636,963 females. For every thousand deaths of females, there were 1,074 of males. These figures give a male death-rate of 15.35 per thousand, and a female death-rate of 14.81 per thousand. It should be borne in mind, however, that the proportion of female to male deaths is somewhat greater than these figures would indicate.

#### AGE.

Of the 390,644 deaths of males in which the ages are recorded, 96,894 occurred under one year of age, and 163,880 under five years of age. Of 363,874 deaths of females of which the ages are recorded, 78,372 were under one year of age and 138,926 under five years of age. The proportion of deaths of males under one year of age to all deaths recorded was 248.03 per thousand; of those under five years of age, it was 419.51 per thousand. The proportion of deaths of females under one year of age to those of all ages recorded, was 215.38 per thousand; of those under five years of age it was 381.85 per thousand. The proportion to all deaths of which the ages are recorded of deaths of persons from five to fifteen years of age was 87.57 per thousand; from fifteen to sixty years of age it was 299.66 per thousand and over sixty years of age it was 172.40 per thousand.

#### CAUSES.

Of the total number of deaths, the causes of death were either not reported at all, or so reported as to be necessarily classed as unknown, in 23,129 cases, leaving a total of 733,764 cases of death in which the causes are distinguished. It is believed that the causes of death have been obtained much more accurately than in any preceding census, owing to the very general aid and coöperation of the physicians of the country in revising and correcting the enumerators' returns with reference to this point. To illustrate some points brought out in the tabulations which have been made, the following figures are given with regard to a few special causes of death.

*Diphtheria.*—The number of cases of deaths reported as due to diphtheria is, males, 18,849; females, 19,549; total, 38,398; giving a proportion of 51.33 per thousand of all deaths in which the causes are reported. The total number of deaths from diphtheria under one year of age was 2,896; under five years of age it was 20,035; between five and fifteen years of age, 16,162. In table Aa is given the number of deaths from this disease in each State Group of Counties in the United States.

In Grand Group I. (North Atlantic region), the proportion of deaths from diphtheria to the total number of deaths having recorded causes, was 51.29 per thousand, being in the cities (New Haven, Boston, Cambridge, Fall River, Lawrence, Lowell, Lynn, and Providence) 46.71 per thousand, and in the remainder of the group, including the smaller towns and rural districts 53.80 per thousand.

In Grand Group IV. (the Gulf Coast), the proportion of deaths from diphtheria was 12.16 per thousand, being in the city of New Orleans 13.74, and in the remainder of the group 12.27 per thousand.

In Grand Group VII. (being the Lake region), the proportion of deaths from diphtheria was 81.15 of all deaths reported, being in the cities (Chicago, Milwaukee, Detroit, Cleveland, Buffalo, Rochester, and Toledo) 78.15 and in the remainder of the group, 84.10 per thousand.

*Enteric Fever.*—The total number of deaths from enteric (typhoid) fever reported are: males, 11,852; females, 11,053; total, 22,905, being in the proportion of 31.21 per thousand of all deaths having reported causes. The total number of deaths from this disease, under one year of age, was 654; under five years, 2,707; from five to fifteen years, 3,952; from fifteen to sixty years, 13,945; over sixty years of age, 2,248.

In Grand Group I. (the north Atlantic region), the proportion of deaths from enteric fever to the total number of deaths having recorded causes, was 18.64 per thousand, being in the large cities (for list of which see above) 16.26, and in the smaller towns and rural districts, 19.95 per thousand.

In Grand Group IV. (the Gulf coast), the proportion of deaths from this disease was 22.01 per thousand, being in the city of New Orleans 7.67, and in the remaining portion of the group 30.02 per thousand.

In Grand Group VII. (being the Lake region), the proportion of deaths from this disease was 22.28 per thousand of all deaths reported, being in the large cities 17.16, and in the remainder of the group 27.31 per thousand.

It will be seen from these figures that neither diphtheria nor enteric fever are especially diseases of the large cities. They appear to be more prevalent in the small towns and rural districts which have no general water supply or systems of sewerage, but obtain their water from springs and wells, and observe the usual custom of storing excreta in cesspools or vaults.

*Malarial Fever.*—The total number of deaths reported as due to malarial fevers is: males, 10,276; females, 9,985; total, 20,261, giving a proportion of 27.61 per thousand of all deaths from reported causes.

The total number of deaths from these fevers, under one year of age, was 2,002; under five years, 6,182; from five to fifteen years, 3,482; from fifteen to sixty years, 7,909; sixty years and over, 26.23.

In Grand Group I. (north Atlantic region), the proportion of deaths from malarial fever to all deaths recorded, was 4.56 per thousand, being in the cities 3.02, and in the remainder of the group 5.40 per thousand.

In Grand Group IV., the proportion of deaths from this disease was 65.85 per thousand, being in the city of New Orleans 44.81, and in the remaining portion of the group 77.61 per thousand.

In Grand Group VII. (the Lake region), the proportion of deaths from these fevers was 9.74 per thousand, being for the large cities 8.27, and for the remainder of the group, 11.88 per thousand.

*Consumption.*—This is the cause of death to which the greatest number of cases are referred in the records, there being reported 40,619 males and 50,932 females as dying of this disease, giving a proportion of 124.76 per thousand of all deaths having reported causes, or a little over 12 per cent. Taking the same groups used above, we find that in Grand Group I., in the cities, consumption caused

150.55 per thousand of all cases of reported deaths, and in the remainder of the group 172.77 per thousand, giving an average of 164.89 per thousand.

In Grand Group IV., it caused, in New Orleans, 152.11 per thousand, and in the remainder of the group 97.66 per thousand, the average being 117.18 per thousand.

In Grand Group VII., it caused in the cities 97.66, and in the rural districts 130.22 per thousand, giving an average of 114.08 per thousand.

It will be seen from these figures that in the North Atlantic and Lake regions, the mortality from consumption is highest in the small towns and rural districts, while on the Gulf Coast the mortality is greatest in the city of New Orleans, in which it is higher than in the northern cities. This is probably due to the fact that New Orleans is not sewered or drained as are the northern cities, and has the soil water very near the surface.

The total number of deaths reported as due to accidents and injuries was 35,932, divided as follows: burns and scalds, 4,786; drowned, 4,320; exposure and neglect, 1,299; gunshot wounds, 2,289; homicide, 1,336; infanticide, 40; injuries by machinery, 120; railroad accidents, 2,349; suffocation, 2,339; suicide by shooting, 472; suicide by drowning, 155; suicide by poison, 340; other suicides, 1,550; sun-stroke, 557; other accidents and injuries, 13,980.

## SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS.

### THE NEW YORK ACADEMY OF MEDICINE.

*Stated Meeting, Nov. 16, 1882.*

FORDYCE BARKER, M.D., LL.D., PRESIDENT, IN THE CHAIR.

AFTER the reading of various reports, the scientific work of the evening was taken up. This consisted of a paper by DR. P. ALBERT MORROW, entitled

#### EXCISION OF CHANCER AS A MEANS OF ABORTING SYPHILIS.

Dr. Morrow asked the question, "Is it possible by excision of the initial lesion to destroy the syphilitic virus, and prevent infection of the general system?"

The views of Bell, Hunter, and Ricord, were referred to. They advocated the early destruction of the local sore. In fact, this practice was almost universal among syphilographers until a very recent date. In 1877 Anspitz first *excised* the initial lesion. Previous to that time it had been destroyed by caustics. Since that time numerous excisions have been made, and many apparent successes reported. In Germany the current opinion is largely in favor of this practice. In France it is by no means received with the same favor, and in England the operation has been practically ignored. In this country excision does not seem to have been often practised, and the general sentiment seems to have been averse to its adoption as a means of cure. Some, however, have expressed themselves as favoring it in certain cases.

The operation consisted in lifting up with a pair of forceps the indurated tissue, together with the area of healthy tissue immediately surrounding it, and cutting off the entire mass with a single sweep of the knife. The part is dressed with a compression bandage. The loss of tissue rarely occasions much deformity. Not

infrequently secondary induration occurs, which is the indication for another operation.

It is claimed that this operation is better than the destruction of the sore by caustics or the hot iron. Also, that this simple operation prevents the occurrence of constitutional syphilis in many cases; that if it does not prevent it, the virus is attenuated and in cases of failure it has been recommended as a local adjuvant, because the local lesion is converted into a simple sore, which heals kindly in a few days.

The indication for the operation is when the sore is located where it can be removed without destroying important structures. Obviously enough, the earlier it is performed the greater the chances for success. Some recommend excision of the involved glands, as well as the local sclerosis.

Now if the initial lesion be the local expression of a constitutional condition, it manifestly follows that its removal cannot modify the effects of the disease upon the general system. In experimenting, we are embarrassed at the outset by our absolute ignorance of the nature of the virus; we are concerned with its celerity rather than the course of its progress. The question is, whether generalization of the virus occurs. At first glance it would seem that the theory of excision was the correct one; that the virus being deposited, was powerless to proceed farther until time had elapsed for repose and proliferation; that after this there was gradual implication of the vessels until the nearest lymphatic glands were reached, when it invaded the entire organism.

This conception regards the chancre as a depot of virus. To excise the chancre is to suppress the source of contagion. Opposed to this theory of excision there are many facts. In the exanthematous diseases we have, as is generally believed, local symptoms only after a period of incubation. Vaccine virus produces local trouble after a certain period, which is evidence of the complete saturation of the system.

Glanders of the horse is analogous to syphilis. Other examples might be adduced to prove that there is no possibility of interfering with the course of the poison after inoculation. The evidence furnished by clinical experience was then formulated; it was claimed that there was no distinctive signs by which a syphilitic sore could be distinguished as such before induration had occurred. Of two hundred and twenty-two cases of excision, sixty were recorded as successes, or about twenty-five per cent. By success was meant the non-appearance of secondary accidents for a period of from four months to four years. A number of objections to the acceptance of reported successful cases of excision were then given.

The author's conclusions were:

*First.*—That the facts of clinical experience as well as the deductions from analogy and experiment were opposed to the local nature of chancre, upon which the practice of excision was based.

*Second.*—The practice of excision of chancre as a means of aborting syphilis is condemned by clinical results.

*Third.*—The sources of error are comprehended under doubtful diagnosis, insufficient observations, and *post-hoc* conclusions.

*Fourth.*—In cases where secondary accidents fail to appear after excision, there is no positive evidence that this immunity is due to the operation.

*Fifth.*—But there is no evidence that excision of chancre attenuates the syphilitic virus, or modifies the general symptoms.

*Sixth.*—That it cannot be recommended as a local adjuvant, since it is opposed to the practice of sound, conservative surgery.

DR. EDWARD L. KEYES was called upon by the chair

to open the discussion, and in doing so he remarked that he had been very much entertained and instructed by Dr. Morrow's paper, and was glad to be able to express his entire approval of the views therein contained. He did not consider it detrimental to himself to acknowledge that there was very little more to be said upon the subject owing to the great industry that the author had displayed in collecting so large an array of evidence. Syphilis, it seemed to him, was like a beautiful woman, in that it, like her, was *semper varum et mutabile*.

The syphilis with us at the present time was not the syphilis of the fifteenth century. It is mild in consequence of civilization. Syphilis among uncivilized people is as fierce, however, to-day as ever. In support of this statement Dr. Keyes read a letter from a graduate of one of the New York colleges, who is now resident in the Sandwich Islands, in which it was stated that upon the discovery of these Islands in 1779, by Captain Cook, they teemed with population, though the exact number of inhabitants was not known till forty years ago, when it was ascertained that there were 110,000 people. To-day, there are only 40,000 inhabitants. Before the visit of Captain Cook syphilis was unknown in these Islands, but since that time and up to the present day it has existed very generally, and in a very aggravated form, as the above statistics would seem to indicate. It was thus seen that syphilis, when implanted upon new fresh soil, was a virulent disease. Though syphilis in this city was generally very mild, still there was no safety nor certainty about it, for patients may die from it, or they may reach old age without experiencing any of its disagreeable features. This idea was supported by the fact brought forward by Dr. Morrow, namely, that though a patient may have undoubted syphilis, the case may go on in the mildest way with very little treatment. It was the animus of the great originator of the operation of excision of chancre that first directed the speaker's attention seriously to the subject. Anspitz, in putting his views before the world thirty or more years ago, failed to recognize the work which had previously been done by others. Again, it was well known that he was a unicist. He paid very little, if any, attention to confrontation. The period of incubation was not noted with care. The only thing he depended upon was the initial sclerosis, and this was decided by the microscope. Now, microscopists did not agree as to the exact appearance of the initial lesion. It had been the speaker's experience that syphilis could be as severe as possible, and that without any hardness of the initial sore. Whether or not the microscope would reveal the evidence of specific virus before hardness had taken place, he did not know. The outcome of all experimentation is that the majority of cases have turned out to be failures. Dr. Keyes had not practised excision in a single case, but had offered to perform the operation of excision in every case where the location of the chancre would justify such a procedure. He had, however, at the same time told the patient that he could not certainly promise any benefit in the way of curing or aborting the disease, and as the patient had not requested the operation to be performed, he had had no experience with it. He thought that the evidence brought forward in Dr. Morrow's paper had settled the question of the worthlessness of the operation, and should strengthen the profession in looking upon it with more disfavor as an unnecessary procedure.

DR. E. B. BRONSON remarked that his personal experience with excision had been very meagre. In a few instances he had excised what he regarded as an initial lesion. These cases were under observation, however, only a short time. The operation was feasible in that it was easily performed, and the wound

Review of 1880 - Mortality Statistics

1880

Mr. S. Mortality

## THE FELLOWS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

WE have received a copy of the new Catalogue of the members of this Society, and have examined it with much interest. It is a matter of regret that it could not have been made complete, and the full name and age of every member given. The committee of revision addressed circulars to members requesting information, and not more than one half of them met with any response. Let us have this interesting catalogue complete, and this end can be reached if every member will send to Dr. Francis Minot, No. 7 Charles St., Boston, the desired facts regarding himself and his neighbors. The age of about one thousand physicians is given, and of these nearly *one hundred have lived to be over eighty years old.* The profession seems to be distinguished for health and longevity.

Among the 3,000 names, we find that 1,075 are marked with a \* as deceased. Of these the ages of 858 are given as follows:—

Between 20 and 30 .....	34
“ 30 “ 40 .....	121
“ 40 “ 50 .....	123
“ 50 “ 60 .....	155
“ 60 “ 70 .....	154
“ 70 “ 80 .....	158
“ 80 “ 90 .....	104
“ 90 “ 100 .....	8
100 .....	1—858

These figures may not be exact, but they are essentially so. The oldest was Dr. Edward Augustus Holyoke, of Salem, who died 1829, aged 100. Those aged 90 and over were —

John Williams, Cambridgeport,	1846, aged 99
Oliver Partridge, Stockbridge,	1848, “ 97

done. In this way for a few cents large quantities of currant bushes may be saved and the fruit allowed to mature, and no danger whatever incurred. Neither the foliage nor the fruit is in any way injured by the carbolate of lime. It will be well for our readers to remember this when the fruit season returns.

---

THE NEW BIRDS. — The new South American birds which we are endeavoring to domesticate at Lakeside Farm, the *Palvons* and *Pauheils*, have stood up bravely against the severe cold of the present winter. They unfortunately cast their feathers in winter, and at the present time (February) are almost without the needed feather protection. It may be that under the influence of climate a change will take place in the time of moulting, so that it will conform to that of our other domestic birds. We sincerely hope that they may prove hardy, and become fully domesticated, as they will make a fine addition to our various families of barn-yard fowls.

---

THE CATTLE DISEASE. — Dogs, cats, and fowls must be looked after and prevented from running at large, in those sections where the mouth and hoof disease prevails. Unquestionably, many animals have had the infection brought to them through birds and domestic animals. A gentleman of Hingham informs us that a favorite cat, in her visits to the barn of a neighbor, conveyed the disease to his herd, and they are now suffering severely from it. Every avenue through which the contagion can be propagated must be vigilantly guarded, if we would check the spread of the disease.

## STRY.

---

almost with electric rapidity it exerted its action, and with such alarming power that I began seriously to wish that the great Liebreich had kept his discovery to himself. The patient's lips became livid, pulse ceased to beat, the respiratory system became instantly paralyzed, the whole muscular system powerless; the patient's body, to use a very domestic but suggestive term, was limber as a dish-rag. Indeed, familiar as a lengthy practice had rendered with scenes of danger I was deeply concerned

BOST

---

William Hooker, Westhampton,	1861, aged 94
Matthias Spalding, Amherst, N. H.,	1865, " 92
John Walton, Pepperell,	1862, " 92
Benjamin Waterhouse, Cambridge,	1847, " 92
Austin Flint, Leicester,	1850, " 90
James Thacher, Plymouth,	1843, " 90
The youngest was John Heard Manning,	
Ipswich, died	1837, " 24
Of the above 271 were 70 and over.....	31.58 per cent.
113 " 80 " " .....	13.17 " "

---

12  
LONGEVITY OF MEDICAL MEN.—According to Casper the average age of clergymen is 65; of merchants, 62; clerks and farmers, 61; military men, 59; lawyers, 58; artists, 57; and medical men, 56. The medium duration of life in Russia he states at about 21 years; in Prussia, 29; in Switzerland, 34; in France, 35; in Belgium, 36; and in England, 38 years. It has been calculated by some statisticians that, under ordinary circumstances, man can live six or seven times longer than the years required to attain puberty. Taking this at the fourteenth year, from 84 to 98 years of age would be the natural life. The *Medical Times and Gazette* lately argued that medical men in England stand high on the scale of longevity. The united ages of twenty-eight physicians who died last year amount to 2,354 years, giving an average of more than 84 years to each. The youngest of the number was 80, the oldest, 93; two others were 92 and 89 respectively; three were 87, and four were 86 each, Sir Henry Holland being one of the latter. There were also more than fifty whose average age was between 74 and 75 years.—*Doctor*, April 1. 1876

1  
ment (5s. weekly, out of which 2s. have to be paid for rent, being all the assistance that he and his wife, also aged, receive from the parochial authorities), and from the injurious effects of the unusually cold weather; than from any senile disease, although he is ninety-three years of age. None of the more prominent signs of decay from old age are present. Until a recent date he has picked up a trifle occasionally by doing little odd jobs of work, such as mending chairs (he was formerly a cabinet and chairmaker) and carrying parcels or letters; when in health, the old man is tolerably sound on his legs, and can walk fair distances.

He was born at Swansea, where he passed the first fifteen years of his life; subsequently he went with his parents to live at Bath, where he learned the business of chair and cabinet maker; and during the last thirty-five years he has resided in London, nearly twenty having been spent in the same house.

But the principal point of interest about this case is that David Jenkins is the great-grandson of Henry Jenkins, who would have considerably puzzled disbelievers in centenarianism, if any existed in his time, for he lived to the patriarchal age of 169 years. The best account of this venerable old man is that given

CONSUMPTION IN RHODE ISLAND.—From the registration report just issued we learn that the number of deaths caused by consumption, in 1881, was 706. This is much the largest number ever reported in Rhode Island in any single year.

Although the number is considerably larger than in any previous year, the proportion to the whole number of deaths, from given causes, is less than in many previous years.

The average annual proportion during a period of twenty years, previous to 1880, was 16.84 per cent. The proportion in 1881 was 15.12 per cent.

The proportions were 30.2 descendents of American parentage, and 60.8 descendents of foreign, in each 100.

The proportion of foreign parentage is much larger than ever previously reported.

During the year 1881 the largest number of deaths from consumption, in any quarterly period, occurred in the third quarter. This circumstance is not in accordance with the rule of many years.

Contrary to rule, also, was the occurrence of the largest monthly number of deaths in August. Following August in the order of largest mortality were January, May, March, April, and July.

In 1881, 377, or more than 53 per cent. of the whole number of deaths from consumption, were of persons between twenty and forty years of age.

From the statistics the inference is unavoidable that consumption, as a cause of death in Rhode Island, has gradually diminished since 1865. The facts shown by the statistics reasonably warrant the following conclusions:

1. That consumption, in the total population of Rhode Island, has gradually lessened in frequency of occurrence, or that medical treatment has been more successful in its cure.

2. That the lessened frequency, or more successful treatment of consumption, has been confined almost exclusively to the population of American parentage.

3. That the proportion of mortality from consumption has always been larger in the population of foreign parentage.

4. That the mortality from consumption, in the class of foreign parentage, has not diminished in proportion to the population of the same parentage, during the last twelve years.

In the city of Providence the statistics show the following important facts:

1. In the population of American parentage in Providence there has been a very remarkable change in the mortality from consumption during the last twenty-five years. In 1856 there was, in this popula-

SANITARY PRECAUTIONS AT MECCA.—In a letter to the Sanitary Administration of the Ottoman Empire M. O. Noury gives the details of the epidemic. Three hundred and twenty-four deaths occurred in the holy city.

The sanitary measures prescribed for the pilgrimage, and enforced during the past season, have been as follows :

1. At Mina, the labor required at the slaughter houses and at the ditches, where the remains of the sacrifices were thrown, was performed by Takrouris, under the supervision of fifty infantry soldiers. Eleven carts were constantly employed in the removal of the remains to the ditches, so that cleanliness was secured in the valley.

2. At Mecca the houses were whitewashed and the closets disinfected with lime.

3. Cleanliness was strictly enforced, both in public places and in private houses.

4. The prompt depopulation of the town and the starting of two caravans earlier than usual were steps recommended and carried out.

5. The sanitary service were warned of cases of sickness whether among pilgrims or in the permanent population of Mecca.

6. Provisions and liquors were kept under inspection.

7. Public latrines were cleaned, and a certain quantity of lime thrown into them daily.

8. The reservoirs of Arafat were emptied, cleaned, and refilled two days before the arrival of the pilgrims.

9. The reservoirs were placed under military guard to prevent pilgrims from bathing or washing their linen therein.

10. The sacrifice of animals otherwise than in the authorized slaughter houses was forbidden.

11. It was the intention to place a military guard around the slaughter houses, that the flocks of sheep might be kept there. Sheep found in the tents were to be seized and placed within the military lines.

12. The importation into Mecca of meat from the sacrificed animals, whether in a fresh or dried state, was prohibited.

13. Lastly, the skins of these animals, after being well salted and dried, had to be sent directly to Jedda by the owner or other interested party.

M. Noury refers to the fact that the first cases in the last two epidemics occurred among soldiers, but considers that these were not really the first cases, although they were the first cases verified. He considers that cholera has its birthplace in Hindoostan, and that it is always imported into the Hedjar by pilgrims. He recommends that quarantine against the East be rigorously enforced, and proposes that pilgrim ships should

in Russia marriage cannot be legally contracted until the males are eighteen and the females sixteen, and in Denmark until the males are twenty and the females eighteen. On the other hand Spanish youth may marry at fourteen and twelve, and it is the same in Greece and Hungary. Italy, at a comparatively recent date, has become more liberal and progressive, and the standard has been raised, being now eighteen and fifteen respectively. The highest standard is found in Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, where a man must be twenty-five and a woman twenty-one before they can legally marry. The marital legislation of the south of Europe seems to have been generally based on purely physical considerations, while that of the North has taken into account mental and moral maturity, and the capacity to engage in business, and thus support a family. The paternal care of the German Governments for the social well-being of their subjects is especially apparent. France has, like Italy, raised the standard of age, which is now placed at eighteen and fifteen respectively, and this is the general tendency.

---

the people as a whole require at of political leaders in respect to lon? the answer is—first, the restoration of the currency to a specie basis without unnecessary delay; and, next, that this shall be effected with the least variation from the existing kinds and status of our currencies, leaving no modifications of the currency to be dealt with hereafter, should occurrences arise. These general assurances would give confidence to nine-tenths of our people, and would command support for any party that might

The New Orleans Times says that the belief in the North entertains that the country is in favor of inflation is a "most extraordinary humbug," and adds:

Nature has given no manifestations of sentiment, and for the best reason. She has passed through the whole course of the disease—the plethora, the fever, the prostration—and is now emaciated, but convalescent. She is now giving the steady, normal pulsations of health.

of promotion

ACCORDING TO THE  
Vatican, the  
posed of 20  
190 domes  
armed priv  
officers, co  
Guard, and  
merary ar  
ants of ho  
others for  
Swiss and  
lains, 50 ho  
the city, 20  
pernumera  
equerries,  
whole give  
added the \$

---

FINAN

CITY WA  
GOLD A

o

CHARLES

THE BOARD OF HEALTH OF CHICAGO report that there were 8025 deaths in that city in 1874, a decrease of 1532 as compared with 1873, and of 2141 as compared with 1872. The assumed death rate is a fraction more than 20 per 1000 inhabitants, which—although larger than the death rate in this city, which was 19.66 per 1000—is unusually small. The death rate in Chicago in 1873 was over 23 per 1000. The large annual decrease in the number of deaths is said to be one of the indirect effects of the great Chicago fire, which made it necessary to rebuild the city, and dispersed the population over the suburban districts. Great efforts were made during the year to guard against the spread of small-pox, which caused 511 deaths in 1873. Last year there was a decrease of 81 per cent. in the number of cases of small-pox, and of 82½ per cent. in the number of deaths from that disease. In Montreal, where there is opposition to vaccination by a large part of the population, there have been from 10 to 15 per cent. more deaths from small-pox than in Chicago, although the latter city contains three times the population of Montreal. The deaths in the Canadian city during the early months of the present year are said to have been at the yearly rate of 42½ per 1000. The average rate of Philadelphia for the last dozen years has not exceeded 21¼ per 1000, or half the reported rate in Montreal.

4181  
Op 1874

hereas, it is alleged, that they neither  
owned nor lost any such amount of prop-  
erty. He was held to bail in the sum of  
\$10,000.

The Papal Ambassadors, Mgr. Roncetti  
and Dr. Ubaldi, left for Baltimore this morn-  
ing, where they will be the guests of Arch-  
bishop Bailey, returning home in advance  
of the public ceremony to take place on  
Wednesday next.

Edward Murphy was sentenced this morn-  
ing to eighteen months in the State Prison  
for waylaying and robbing a Mr. John North,  
Southington, Conn., on the 12th of Febru-  
ary, at the corner of Fifteenth st. and Tenth  
avenue. The prisoner's aged father was in  
court, and was so painfully affected that he  
had to be removed.

The friends of rapid transit had another  
meeting, this afternoon, at the Board of Fire  
Insurance Brokers, 162 Broadway, Mr. Chas.  
Butler presiding. The only business of im-  
portance transacted was the reference to a  
committee of a series of resolutions adopted  
by one of the up-town ward associations,  
demanding that no election of directors take  
place until \$3,000,000 be subscribed, and until  
ten per cent. of the same shall have been  
paid in.

The cold, blustering weather still operates  
as a serious drawback to business. This be-  
ing a Hebrew holiday, there was very little  
done in certain branches of city trade. The  
dry goods people were complaining of a lack  
of orders. Washington and Bristol special  
prints have been reduced to 9 cents. Ging-  
hams are reported in short supply. Dress  
goods and shawls are inactive. All descrip-  
tions of woolen goods for men's wear are  
quiet and steady.

to be given on Monday

## COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF MORTALITY

IN VARIOUS CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR 1874.

(Kindly furnished by Dr. ELISHA HARRIS, Registrar of Vital Statistics of the Health Department, New York.)

Cities.	Population.	Total number of deaths	Death rate per thousand of population.	Total number of deaths from Consumption.	Percentage of deaths from Consumption on total mortality.	Death rate of Consumption per thousand of Population.
Charleston, S. C....	50,000	1,948	38.96	98	5.05	1.96
Columbus.....	8,000	287	35.87			
Savannah.....	29,000	1,026	35.38			
New Orleans.....	207,000	6,798	32.76			
Mobile.....	35,000	1,128	32.23	133	11.78	3.80
Boston.....	375,000	7,812	30.83	1,309	16.75	3.46
Newark.....	115,000	3,353	29.16			
Troy.....	50,000	1,450	29.00	294	20.27	5.88
New York.....	1,040,000	28,727	27.62	4,033	14.04	3.88
Fall River.....	43,000	1,177	27.21	148	12.55	3.41
Pittsburg.....	137,000	3,381	24.68	331	9.78	2.41
Richmond.....	65,000	1,591	24.47	231	14.52	3.55
Brooklyn.....	450,000	11,011	24.46	1,267	11.45	2.81
Lowell.....	49,000	1,184	24.12	184	15.54	3.75
Memphis.....	50,000	1,148	22.96	137	11.93	2.74
Detroit.....	110,000	2,386	21.69			
Baltimore.....	350,000	7,401	21.14	1,036	14.00	2.96
Cincinnati.....	260,000	5,321	20.46			
Worcester.....	50,000	1,023	20.46			
Chicago.....	395,000	8,025	20.29	630	7.85	1.62
San Francisco.....	200,000	4,044	20.14	556	13.75	2.77
Providence.....	99,608	1,983	19.90	269	13.58	2.70
Washington.....	150,000	2,959	19.72	471	15.90	3.14
Philadelphia.....	775,000	15,238	19.66	2,304	15.12	3.10
Milwaukee.....	100,000	1,909	19.09	136	7.12	1.36
Portland.....	35,900	684	19.08			
Reading.....	42,000	792	18.86			
Quincy.....	30,000	555	18.76	52	9.37	1.73
Buffalo.....	175,000	3,230	18.46			
Galveston.....	34,000	626	18.41	16	0.25	0.47
Springfield, Mass....	33,000	605	18.33	76	12.56	2.33
New Haven.....	59,000	1,073	17.85	197	18.35	2.96
Rochester.....	80,000	1,405	17.56	188	13.38	3.10
St. Paul.....	40,000	641	16.03			
Jersey City.....	150,000	2,302	15.34	177	7.68	1.18
Albany.....	95,000	1,453	15.30			
Syracuse.....	60,000	912	15.20	121	1.32	2.01
Cleveland.....	145,000	2,195	15.13	178	8.10	1.23
Sacramento.....	21,000	313	14.90	53	16.93	2.53
Wheeling, W. Virg.	27,000	396	14.66	42		
St. Louis.....	450,000	6,506	14.45	581	8.93	1.29
Dayton.....	34,000	479	14.09	68	14.19	2.00
Hartford.....	45,000	588	12.86	55	9.35	1.22
Oakland, Cal.....	20,000	278	12.65	25	8.89	1.25
Peoria.....	30,000	338	11.16	32	9.46	1.06

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF MORTALITY IN VARIOUS  
CITIES OF EUROPE  
FOR THE YEAR 1874.

	Population.	Total number of deaths	Death rate per thousand of population.
CONTINENT.			
Berlin.....	828,000	27,262	32.9
Rome.....	248,307	6,839	27.5
Copenhagen.....	200,000	5,444	27.2
Hamburg (State).....	357,453	9,661	27.0
Turin.....	214,425	5,731	27.0
Amsterdam.....	282,000	7,521	26.7
The Hague.....	94,895	2,512	26.5
Vienna.....	833,855	22,097	24.6
Brussels.....	314,077	7,506	23.9
Paris.....	1,851,792	41,428	22.4
GREAT BRITAIN.			
Liverpool.....	510,640	16,336	32.0
Glasgow.....	508,109	15,801	31.1
Manchester.....	355,339	10,799	30.4
Salford.....	133,068	3,935	29.6
Newcastle-on-Tyne.....	135,437	3,959	29.2
Leeds.....	278,798	8,001	28.7
Bradford.....	163,056	4,395	27.0
Sheffield.....	261,029	7,009	26.9
Birmingham.....	360,892	9,664	26.8
Dublin.....	314,666	8,190	26.0
Hull.....	130,996	3,340	25.5
Leicester.....	106,202	2,560	24.1
Edinburgh.....	211,691	5,005	23.6
Sunderland.....	104,378	2,443	23.4
Bristol.....	192,889	4,382	22.7
London.....	3,400,701	76,606	22.5
Portsmouth.....	120,436	2,453	20.4

These figures, copied from the Annual Report of the British Registrar-General, evince the additional fact that the death rate advances, in almost every case, as the density of population increases. Thus in London there are 45 persons to each square acre of surface; in Edinburgh, 47; in Manchester, 82; in Liverpool, 98; in Glasgow, 100. The respective rates of mortality in these places increase in a closely corresponding ratio, viz:—London, 22.5; Edinburgh, 23.6; Manchester, 30.4; Liverpool, 32.0; Glasgow, 31.1.

THE COMPARATIVE INFLUENCE OF MARRIAGE AND CELIBACY.—M. Bertillon, in a note to the Académie de Médecine (*L'Union Médicale*, November 16, 1871), shows that husbands have a better chance of life than either celibatists or widowers, for he has found that between the ages of 25 and 30 years one thousand husbands will furnish about six deaths annually, while the same number of single men and widowers will furnish respectively ten and twenty-two. Between the ages of 30 and 35 years the proportions are seven per one thousand for husbands, eleven and a half for single men, and nineteen for widowers. Between 35 and 40 the proportions are respectively seven, thirteen, and seventeen. It is necessary, M. Bertillon thinks, to attribute these results to marriage; and to the objection sometimes made, that those who marry are generally in good health and in easy circumstances, he answers by referring to the large mortality among widowers. Marriage at a very early age, nevertheless, gives rise to a large proportion of deaths among husbands. The mortality between the ages of 18 and 35 years among married women is less than among single women, but the difference is less than in the case of men, because women are at this time exposed to all the dangers of parturition; but, by a sort of compensation, the mortality among widows is less than among widowers or single women of the same age. He finds from a calculation of probabilities that people who marry between the ages of 20 and 25 years have about forty years of life before them, while those who remain single have about thirty-five years to live. Criminals are more frequently single than married men, and there is a greater tendency to suicide and to mental alienation among the former than among the latter.

Marriage & Celibacy

ring in the proportion of deaths from disease. The proportion of deaths from all causes to cases treated was 1 to 122. The total number of deaths reported was 519, or 17 per 1000 of mean strength. Of these, 363 died of disease, and 156 of wounds, accidents, and injuries. 1091 white soldiers are reported to have been discharged on "surgeon's certificate of disability," being at the rate of 37 per 1000 of mean strength.

The reports for the *colored* troops give the following figures, which do not include the white officers. The total number of cases of all kinds reported was 3551, or 1362 per 1000 of mean strength. Of these, 2964 were cases of disease, and 587 were wounds, accidents, and injuries. The average number constantly on sick report was 104, or 40 per 1000 of mean strength, of whom 74 were under treatment for disease, and 30 for wounds, accidents, and injuries. The number of deaths from all causes reported was 49, or 19 per 1000 of mean strength. Of these, 28 died of disease, and 21 of wounds, accidents, and injuries. The proportion of deaths from all causes to cases treated was 1 to 72. The number of discharged on "surgeon's certificate of disability" was 71, being at the rate of 27 per 1000 of mean strength.

There were entered on the registers the histories of

What Statistics  
Warmed Sample

## FIGURES THAT LIE.

IN spite of the proverb, figures not unfrequently lie, or at least are made to lend a seeming support to some false inference or generalization. We find a good illustration of this in the following paragraph, which, under the heading "Mortality as affected by Marriage," has been copied without comment into almost every medical magazine in the country:—

"In a paper read by M. Bertillon before the Academy of Medicine of Paris, the author, using as evidence the statistics of France, Holland, and Belgium, strongly maintained the healthful influence of conjugal association, as compared with that of celibacy. The figures show that, between the ages of 20 and 35 years, 1,000 married men furnish 6 deaths; 1,000 bachelors, 10 deaths; and 1,000 widowers, 22 deaths. From 30 to 35 years of age, the same classes, respectively, furnish 7, 11, and  $17\frac{1}{2}$  deaths. From 35 to 40 years of age, the mortality is  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , 13, and  $17\frac{1}{2}$  per 1,000, respectively. And so on in a series of tables for all ages, the married man has greater longevity than the single man. The same advantage of the married state obtains in the case of females, though up to the age of 80 the difference is not so apparent as in the other sex. From 30 to 35, the mortality is 11 per 1,000 for

2  
Robert Spencer

every man exercising any influence on his neighbor, or having any amount of leisure on his hands, shall have become an enlightened friend of science; when the least among laborers shall know what principles regulate the processes and the practice of his handicraft. This is enough to make you understand that our work is one of time. Most of us will not see its ultimate end, but we shall bequeath this noble task to our sons, as a sacred heirloom, and you may rest assured that it will be accomplished by them, if not by us. Look at the results obtained in England, by our eldest sister, the British Association. It is owing to its action, that part of the population of England has undergone a transformation. The sons of fox-hunting squires are now geologists, philosophers, botanists, archaeologists, etc. It is a banker who presides over the Anthropological Institute, and a brewer who is at the head of the Astronomical Society. The British Association reckons its members by thousands, and all the principal towns dispute the honor of its visits.

"Let us, then, begin our work with confidence; let us spare no efforts, for none shall be in vain. We know now, that in the physical world there is no loss of power, no loss of matter. It is so, and even to a more absolute degree, in the moral world. Will is also a power, a power that increases and multiplies by transforming the minds of men, like a fer-

Thomas Sturge

---

single women, and only 9 per 1,000 for married women, and this difference increases up to the age of 55. Thus, from 50 to 55 years of age, 1,000 wives furnish only 15 or 16 deaths, while as many single women or widows furnish 26 or 27. This advantage remains very notable beyond that age, diminishing but little. In France, however, under 25, and in Paris, under 20 years of age, marriage is far from favorable, but even injurious, as also in the case of males. The mortality of unmarried girls of from 15 to 20 is 7.53 per 1,000; the mortality of wives of the same age being 11.86. The mortality of girls from 20 to 25 is 8.32; of wives of the same age, 9.92."

STRY.

parents were allowed their choice, they would doubtless prefer this last named adulteration to the lead salt mentioned above.

---

SELECT FORMULÆ.

COD-LIVER OIL EMULSION.—That excellent quarterly, *New Remedies*, edited by Professor H. C. Wood, Jr., translates the following from the *Journal de Pharmacie*:—

Take of

Tragacanth	. . . . .	8 parts.
Cold water	. . . . .	500 “

Make into a mucilage.

*Stated Meeting, May 15th, 1873.*

DR. S. S. PURPLE, Vice-President, in the Chair.

MORTALITY OF VARIOUS STATES OF THE UNION.

PROF. J. C. DALTON was appointed orator for 1873.

DR. CHARLES P. RUSSEL read a valuable paper on "Mortality in the various States of the Union," and concluded with a tabulated statement of death-rates during the past year in the principal American and foreign cities—derived from official sources. He was largely indebted for the foreign figures presented to the courtesy of American consuls in their respective posts. The figures of American, Italian, and British cities were generally furnished him by officers in charge of statistical bureaus. This table is the most comprehensive one of the kind ever presented.

The highest death-rate in the United States, according to the table, was given by Memphis, viz.: 46.6 in each 1,000 inhabitants; in Savannah, the mortality was equal to 39.2 in each 1,000 inhabitants; in Vicksburg, 36.5; in Troy, 34; in Hoboken, 32.9; in New York, 32.6; in Newark, 31.6; in New Orleans, 30.6; and in Boston, 30.5. These were the highest figures of mortality. The other principal cities furnished the following death-rates: Philadelphia, 26.1; Brooklyn, 28.1; St. Louis, 20.1; Chicago, 27.6; Baltimore, 25.1; Cincinnati, 20.5; San Francisco, 17.2.

Of the larger British cities, Dublin yielded the greatest death-rate, viz.: 29.9 in each 1,000 inhabitants; that of Manchester being 28.6; of Glasgow, 28.4; of Leeds, 27.9; and of Liverpool, 27.1. The death-rate of London was as low as 21.4—less than that of any other important British city.

On the continent of Europe, the highest death-rate was noticed in Prague, Bohemia, viz.: the enormous one of 48.9 in each 1,000 people. It was excessive in Cadiz, Spain, where it was equal to 44.7; in Munich it was 41.8; in Rome, 36.7; in Naples, 35.7; in Florence, 35.1; in Athens, 33; in Berlin, a city with little less population than New York, it was 32.3, or nearly equal

a different class of nerves are involved in the process connected with the dilatation of the cervix uteri, from that involved in the process of the expulsion of the contents of the uterus.

I have not seen a case of hour-glass contraction for more than twenty years in my own cases. I have seen it in consultation, and then it has occurred from just those causes which the author in his paper has mentioned, and which are defined for the first time.

In relation to the stricture of the cervix uteri, I will add another cause which was not mentioned, and that is from paralysis of the muscles of that part due to the uterine contractions having forced the head below the symphysis pubis, and as the labor goes on the anterior lip becomes pressed between the foetal head and the symphysis, and so paralyzes those tissues that it prevents normal contraction.

When I find this condition, I think labor is very frequently shortened by hours, by introducing one or two fingers and pushing the lip up and holding it up until the head has escaped from it.

With regard to stricture of the perinæum, I believe there is an enormous difference in the nervous susceptibility of different patients. I used to see cases, before the use of anæsthetics, of excessive spasmodic rigidity of the perinæum, which now never occurs in my own practice. I think in most cases this is one very much of the same sort of paralysis of the muscles which I referred to as causing paralysis of the anterior lip. In this case the pressure is from the head upon the perinæum, the mucous membrane of the vagina very frequently becomes dry, and the reflex action is such as to give rise to excessive uterine pain, without any results. I find that these cases are most satisfactorily managed and the labor most rapidly completed, by placing the woman fully under the influence of an anæsthetic and introducing, it may be, a large quantity of some unctuous substance, such as lard, cold cream, or sweet-oil into the vagina.

In regard to ergot and *expressio foetus*, I have only to say that I have had no practical experience as re-

to our own; in Bologna, Italy, it was 32.2; and in Vienna, Genoa, Stockholm, and Nice, 31.8. The large mortality of the last-mentioned city is owing to the many deaths of invalid strangers sojourning there. High death-rates prevailed also in Havre, Rotterdam, Leghorn, Venice, and Milan, ranging between 31 and 30. In Paris it was stated as only 21.1—but all deaths by strangers and travellers are there excluded.

The lowest mortality was given by the Swiss cities in Zurich, Geneva, and Basle—13.9, 19.4, and 20.9 respectively — and Christiania, Norway, 20.7. Algiers, Africa, gave a death-rate of 33.6. That of the Indian cities of Bombay and Calcutta was by no means high, being 29.2 and 25. In Madras, however, it was 35. In Montreal it was 37.3, and in Havana 35.1. The highest known death-rate prevailed in Valparaiso, Chili, viz.: 66.9 in each 1,000 inhabitants. This was the only South American city heard from.

teaching utterly leads to the neglect of many of those methods of treatment which, at the present day, not only relieve suffering and exhaustion, but save many hours of labor and absolutely save life.

Perhaps as historical reminiscence, I may be permitted to refer to a case of considerable interest, one which, at the time of its occurrence, made a great sensation, and which has been quoted by writers and teachers from that day to this. I refer to the case of Princess Charlotte, only daughter of George IV., whose life, I believe, was sacrificed by the application of principles which were in accordance with the medical doctrines of that day, but whose life and the life of her child would have been saved had she been attended by any practitioner now present.

The case was referred to as an instance where death was the result of a concealed hæmorrhage, and teachers have been in the habit of referring to the romance of the story that Sir Rich-

The following statistics, which have been obtained from the most authentic sources accessible, represent the mortality in some of the chief cities of the world during the past four or five years:

	No. of Years.	Average popula'n.	Average total mortal'y.	Aver'e death rate per 1000.
Vienna .....	5	648,560	20,424	31.42
New York.....	5	994,458	29,601	29.93
Berlin .....	4	950,000	28,420	29.91
London.....	5	3,284,488	76,741	23.33
Paris.....	4	1,851,792	42,724	23.06
Philadelphia..	5	744,831	16,573	22.27

While thus showing an average rate of mortality more favorable than that found in any other city containing over 500,000 inhabitants, Philadelphia has recently (1874) attained a degree of healthfulness almost unparalleled, viz: with a population at that time of 775,000, the number of deaths was but 14,966, giving a death rate of only 19.3 per thousand.

taken to the coining of silver dollars of  
value corresponding to the other silver coins  
authorized by law, nor to their payment by  
the Treasury in the redemption of United  
States notes, as provided in the second sec-  
tion of the bill now pending in the United  
States Senate. But, the truth is, the proposed  
new silver dollar is to weigh only 399.9 grains,  
fifteen and one-half times as much as a  
gold dollar, and worth some two per cent  
less than the greenback dollar; consequently  
a more wrongful and mischievous piece of  
legislation by Congress was ever attempted  
than is contemplated in the provision to  
make these silver dollars a legal tender. It  
is impossible to suppose that the Senators  
who reported the bill could have studied the  
effects of that provision in practical opera-  
tion, else they would have discovered its

pl  
to  
lig  
pa  
ou  
sev  
wil  
rise  
high  
star  
dec

—  
mo  
ter  
the  
in  
cre  
528

# Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania,

North College Avenue and Twenty-First Street,

PHILADELPHIA.

---

Prof. Hartshorne is requested to attend  
the monthly meeting of the Faculty,  
to be held Sat. May 27<sup>th</sup> 1876, at 7.30 P.M.  
in the Faculty Room.

May 23<sup>rd</sup> 1876.

Rachel L. Bodley A.M.  
Dean.



WRITE THE ADDRESS ON THIS SIDE—THE MESSAGE ON THE OTHER

Prof. Henry Hartshorne U.S.  
Haverford College  
Montgomery Co.  
Penn.

In every department of surgery save in the department of fractures and dislocations, surgeons have furnished themselves with statistics as to the relative degree of success of the various operations. It is indicated what percentage of recoveries and deaths to expect. But how is it with fractures and dislocations, which are the most frequent source of prosecutions?

He had constructed tables, the result of much and patient study, the first of which appeared in 1852, and they were published originally in the *Buffalo Medical Journal*. Up to the year 1859, this was the only serious attempt made to ascertain what is the average result in the treatment of broken limbs.

At the request of the American Medical Association, he had prepared a paper on the subject, in which he not only gave the cases as originally tabulated, but a large number of additional cases.

The speaker here referred to the labors of Mr. Pott, of England, who, by his work, succeeded in revolutionizing in that country the treatment of fractures and dislocations, by the introduction of the "physiological method." He employed an inclined plane. With various modifications, it had become the almost universal practice. Dupuytren and others in France did not accede to the views of Pott, so that the triumph was not so great as in England. In this country he gained but a very few followers. There was only a single advocate for his original method, while for the modification there were only two or three. At that time it was stated that the practice of surgery was a disgrace to English surgery; and now, at the expiration of many years, it is again stated, notwithstanding all the so-called improvements and advances, that the treatment of dislocations and fractures is a disgrace to English surgery. This statement at this time is attributed to an eminent surgeon in St. Bartholomew's Hospital,—Mr. Skey.

Now, the speaker was more leniently disposed towards the English surgeon than is Mr. Skey. He did not believe that the English surgeons are any less skilful in the treatment of fractures and dislocations than the French; neither did he consider them any less skilful than Americans. But they had failed to see what the real difficulty is, namely, *that there are impossibilities attempted and claimed which never can be accomplished!*

But Mr. Pott was not the only surgeon who

cated with the rectum. The median septum was excised, and the two ani united into one. This abnormal conformation gave rise to no inconvenience in defecation. The second case was that of an infant, not forty-eight hours old, and who presented an imperforation of the rectum; the anus was well formed exteriorly. The operation was immediately performed; in order to get at the bottom of the cul-de-sac more easily, resection of the coccyx was performed. At present this little patient, who is six months old, has a prolapse of the rectum. Perhaps this prolapse is due to the resection of the osseous appendage. It should be noted that the infant lived under very unfavorable conditions.

X.

**EPILEPTIFORM ATTACKS FOLLOWING PARAPHIMOSIS** (*Wien. Med. Presse*, March 7).—Dr. Moritz Werthur reports the case of a healthy boy, 15 years of age, in whom a severe paraphimosis had been brought about, in all probability, by attempts at onanism. When first seen, the swelling of the parts would not allow manual reduction. After the administration of an anæsthetic, a slight incision was made to relieve tension in the œdematous tissue, and the paraphimosis was reduced. A dressing of cold-water cloths was used, together with a bit of charpie moistened with dilute solution of carbolic acid placed between the prepuce and the glans. The parts recovered their natural condition within three days, but at the end of that time the patient was seized with frequent and severe epileptic convulsions. Suspecting psychical causes, since nothing could be observed to account for the trouble so far as the lately-affected parts were concerned, Dr. W. made use of the oxide of zinc in repeated doses, in connection also with diminishing amounts of morphia. The attacks ceased within a week, and for two years, up to the date of the communication, had not returned. Dr. W. adduces, as confirmatory of the benefit of this drug, the case of a pregnant woman attacked by epilepsy, who, after trying various remedies in vain, was quickly cured by the use of valerianate of zinc and morphia.

X.

**CAUSES AND SIGNIFICATION OF SUBSCAPULAR FRIC-TION.**—Under this title Dr. Terrillon (*Archives de Méd.*, 1874) calls attention to a peculiar crepitation produced by movements of the scapula over the chest-walls in spare persons, and in patients who suffer from ankylosis of the shoulder.

The contact of the two osseous surfaces rubbing one over the other causes the formation of a serous sac. This presents a special pathology with which it is necessary that the physician should be acquainted. Dr. Terrillon, in his communication to the *Archives*, treats of inflammations, abscesses, hygromata, cysts containing rice-like particles, etc., as occurring in connection with this serous sac.—*Le Progrès Méd.*, February 6.

X.

**DERMOID CYST OF THE OVARY.**—M. Terrier communicates the following observation. It concerns a patient coming under his care for a voluminous tumor occupying the right iliac fossa and presenting all the characters of an ovarian cyst.

An exploratory puncture revealed the existence in this tumor of epithelial cells, of hair, and of a thin grayish-white liquid. An operation was decided upon, and was accomplished without difficulty. The results were favorable. The temperature never rose above 100.5° F. Retention of urine supervened without appreciable cause, but disappeared at the end of five days. Histological examination of the sac showed that it presented on its internal aspect the appearance of skin. In fact, hair, fatty granules, sudoriferous glands, etc., were found.—*Bull. Gén. de Thérap.*, March 15.

X.

Handling Statistics

ward, and, we believe, in a warm climate it would yield the best surgical results. No statistics have ever seemed to us necessary to determine that an open tent, if it can be well warmed, offers a better chance than any surgical ward to those who are so unfortunate as to undergo serious operations. Carrying out this same line of argument, it seems a natural conclusion that the best summer ventilation in an ordinary hospital is to be obtained by having an abundance of windows and keeping them always wide open.

Holding these views, we naturally were somewhat surprised by the following paragraph, from the first paper in the current number of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*:

"Of the total number of deaths after amputations during forty-five years, we find that the mortality of the different months of these years was as follows:

January, 11 died.	July, 29 died.
February, 15 "	August, 22 "
March, 15 "	September, 19 "
April, 16 "	October, 21 "
May, 27 "	November, 11 "
June, 25 "	December, 19 "

"It will be observed that the smallest number of deaths occurred in January and November, when the hospital wards have pure but heated air by forced ventilation, while in the months of May, June, July, and August, when the ventilation in the hospital is effected by simply opening windows, we find the largest number of deaths. Mr. Edward Richardson has examined the hospital records, and has found that during a period of twenty-five years, from 1850 to 1874, inclusive, in 2015 deaths in the surgical wards, the months of February and November also exhibit the smallest number; from May to September the mortality was very much greater; while in July and August the deaths were double the number of those in February. These results may be induced by various agencies, but they naturally suggest the subject of ventilation in the summer in hospital wards, and whether proper change in the air of a ward can be brought about without open fireplaces or currents of air forced from a fan. It is well known that opening all the windows of a ward in certain states of the atmosphere will not change the air at all, and there is little doubt that either of the above-mentioned plans to secure ventilation might be adopted with much better results."

The more the conclusions reached in this paragraph are thought over, the more definitely does it appear that either the principle which we have brought forward or else the statistics just detailed are at fault. Not being able to find any incorrectness in the principles, we have naturally been led to examine the statistics. We have not access to the records of the Hospital, but Dr. Morton in the

earlier portion of his paper gives a chronological table of all the operations performed in the hospital during the years 1870, '71, '72, '73, and '74. Rearranging this list, so that it shall show the number of operations per month, *presto*, the number of deaths is greater in July than in January *because* there are *more cases*; the mortality *per cent.* is greatly less in the summer than in the winter months. This is the list:

WINTER MONTHS.					
	Cases.	Died.		Cases.	Died.
January, 1870	2	1	November, 1870	2	0
" 1871	2	1	" 1871	4	0
" 1872	1	1	" 1872	2	1
" 1873	2	1	" 1873	2	0
" 1874	3	3	" 1874	1	1
	10	7		11	2

Mortality per cent., 42 $\frac{7}{10}$ .

SUMMER MONTHS.					
	Cases.	Died.		Cases.	Died.
May, 1870	3	1	June, 1870	3	1
" 1871	5	1	" 1871	7	2
" 1872	1	0	" 1872	3	0
" 1873	1	1	" 1873	3	0
" 1874	2	0	" 1874	1	1
	12	3		17	4
July, 1870	1	0	Aug., 1870	3	1
" 1871	1	0	" 1871	2	2
" 1872	4	1	" 1872	4	0
" 1873	4	1	" 1873	3	0
" 1874	8	1	" 1874	3	1
	18	3		15	4

Mortality per cent., 22 $\frac{3}{10}$ .

These figures apply, of course, only to certain years, but they are seemingly sufficient to reconcile statistics and principle until, at least, it is shown by actual demonstration that the apparent fallacy in the numerical argument does not exist. It is hardly possible that what is true of five years is not true of many years,—namely, that there is more business activity and consequently that there are more accidents in this region during the summer than during the winter.

The annual rates per 1,000 in eighteen English towns as follows: Portsmouth, 16.50; Norwich, 21.50; Leicester, 17.25; Wolverhampton, 19.75; Sunderland, 17; Bradford, 20.50; London, 20.25; Birmingham, 23; Bristol, 22; Sheffield, 22.25; Leeds, 22.25; Nottingham, 24.75; Liverpool, 23.50; Newcastle-on-Tyne, 23.50; Manchester, 26.25; Salford, 23.25; Oldham, 28.25; Hull, 28.25.

Other foreign cities at most recent dates per 1,000: Calcutta, 31; Bombay, 27; Madras, 33; Brussels, 24; Amsterdam, 26; Rotterdam, 28; Hague, 33; Christiania, 23; Berlin, 46; Hamburg, 24; Breslau, 36; Munich, 33; Vienna, 38; Buda-Pesth, 37; Rome, 21; Naples, 32; Turin, 26; Alexandria, 44.

*Sanitarium 1875*

of the present Board, the appropriation for the employment of vaccinators being exhausted, nothing was done to suppress it. It is to the credit of the new Board, that immediately on assuming office, the Sanitary Inspectors were utilized for this important work.

The duty of removing offal, garbage, etc., is devolved upon the new Board, in conjunction with the Department of City Works. *An effective plan is yet to be devised.* Meanwhile, however, the Board of Health is active in the detail of daily work to this end.

---

IMPURE WATER AND STREET RUBBISH.

BROOKLYN, July 12; 1875.

A. N. BELL, M. D.

\* Hypocrites 100 - Galen 99 & 100  
St. Anthony 105 yrs

James the Hermit 104

St. Jerome 100

Simon Stylites 109

~~Galen (100)~~

Cardinal de Salis, Archb. <sup>110</sup> Perth

~~St. the Painter, 100~~ <sup>110</sup> ~~St. Rose nearly the~~ <sup>100</sup> ~~same -~~

De Bellay, <sup>also. August 90</sup> Archb. of Paris <sup>over 100</sup>  
Kentigern (St. Morgan) slept

on the ground shalms hard, very  
temperate, 185.

Ephraim Pratt of Hutesbury  
Mass. - 117, on milk

His son, Michael Pratt 103 +  
Henry Francisco, in America, 140

Mean Temp of England,  
35° -

over Northern States, 16

& Ball & D. A. Combe assert  
coffee to be pernicious -

## Old People. (London Society)

(Robt Pooles, Tyross in Armagh, 116 died 1742)  
~~Mary Power, aunt of Hon. R. Lalor Shute, 116~~  
David Kemson, Albany N.Y., Soldier of Rev.,  
117, died 1852

Wroal Chicken; Holderness, 120, 1722

Chas. Cottrell, died Philada 1701, 120, leaving  
a wife, 115, married 98 years

a Duchess of Buccleugh, "20 yrs maiden, 50 yrs  
wife, 50 yrs widow," died 1728 - 120 yrs -

Wm. Beatty who fought at battle of Boyne,  
130, 1774. (Mrs Keith, died at Newham, 1772,

133.) (John McDonagh, Ennis, Ireland, 138, 1769)

(Countess of Desmond, went to market on foot almost  
to day of death, dyed 140, near middle of 17th Century)

Slab on floor of abbey Dore Church Herefordshire  
records death of Elizabeth Lewis, 1715, 141 yrs.

Mrs. Eckelson, of Ireland, 1696, 148.

(Thos. Parr - 1483 - 1635: buried Westminster, Abbey, monument)

(Henry Jenkins, Yorkshire, 169, died 1670.)

A tombstone in Conway Churchyard records that  
Lowry Owens Vaughan died in 1766, 192.  
(A woman)

F. Vincent Raspail  
(died 1870) delivered a  
course of lectures on  
philosophy at Avignon  
at 18 — Bon thurloys  
at 19 yrs —

---

Lord St. Leonards, 1869,  
aged 88, made an hour's  
able speech in Parliament

---

Very Old People

2  
Keriah Smith, Franklin Co. Va.  
died (1868 or 9) 125 years old —  
M Y and Remd Apr. 1. 1869

A native of Poland is reported to have died  
about the same time aged 139 —

Rachel Burr was reported to be living in  
Iowa, in 1866, aged 114.

Joseph Crele, native of Detroit,  
living in Wisconsin, 1864,  
said to be 139 —

A hunter & guide in Kansas, native  
of Canada, said to have died in 1871, at 134

Sir Moses Montefiore, 1883, in 100<sup>th</sup> year.  
Chemical Lecturing at Paris, 1883, 98<sup>th</sup> year.

† Old people:

Scott, already named  
Jas. Lawrence 140-3

Ireland Grants of Desmond 140  
 went to market on foot almost to the day of her death  
 17<sup>th</sup> century - Counties Elector, 143

Thos. Winslow 140

England John Effington 144

Frances Conner 150

Thos Parr 152  
out of discription London in Western Abbey.  
The Limington monument 60

~~Norman Jos. Livingston~~ / 60  
~~New York and Washington~~ / 59  
~~for sale~~ / 41 (Smoked)

In France in 1802 <sup>already</sup> 46 people over 100

In Russia, 1804 - 1818 ditto -

A few years ago Madeline Onofri at Rome 121

Jean Claude Jacob, mem. of Fr. Acad.

Dr Verdugo, oldest physician from time, 105, died at Paris 1868

Seed is Puebla and 130

1595

1874  
**GEORGE LABAR.**

*The Post-Centenarian.*

We briefly chronicled, yesterday, the death of George Labar, of Monroe county, Pa., which occurred on Saturday last. It was the close of one of those wonderfully prolonged lives which run far back beyond the memory of other living men. George Labar was born in the autumn of 1763, *one hundred and eleven* years ago, at Mount Bethel, Northampton county, now called Portland, where his baptismal register still exists. He was of French descent, his grandfather settling in Pennsylvania in 1730, a fugitive from religious persecution.

He has spent his whole long life among the scenes of his nativity, and retained to the last vivid recollections of the old Indian wars, the Revolution and the subsequent early events of American history. Nearly seventy years ago he accompanied his parents in their emigration to Ohio, but only remained with them a few days, and returned home. His father lost his wife when he was ninety-eight years old, and the gay old gentleman married again at one hundred! He died at one hundred and five, and was buried in Ohio.

George Labar, who has just died, has preserved a wonderfully hale and hearty condition to the last. He was of medium height, had a large head, well covered with snow-white hair, a keen, quick eye, and a face of strongly marked features, not much marred by age. In walking he stooped considerably, but was possessed of sufficient vigor to walk some rods without assistance. Like all centenarians, he remembered Gen. Washington—in this case there is no improbability in the narration—and talked enthusiastically over the time when the news of Washington's capture of the Hessians at Princeton spread up the valleys and brought joy to so many loyal hearts. He thought Washington had a charmed existence, and that bullets were powerless to harm him. Once he saw the great general at Easton, then an insignificant hamlet, and he said Washington wore buckskin breeches, silk stockings and silver shoe buckles. This aged relic of a former century related these particulars with a zest and earnestness which strongly persuaded one of their truthfulness.

George Labar had never been sick but three times in his life, once with yellow fever, once with camp fever and once with typhoid fever. He used tobacco very freely all his life, both smoking and chewing, but was very moderate in his use of liquor of all kinds. He took daily exercise in the woods, among which he had grown up, felling trees and chopping railroad ties, up to within the last two or three years. It is recorded of him that in 1869, when one hundred and seven years old, he felled trees and peeled three wagon-loads of bark, which one of his youngest sons, a young chap of sixty, hauled to market for him.

George Labar was married in 1788, and leaves a large number of descendants, who are scattered around Monroe county. His oldest son was born in 1791, and married at twenty-one a girl of thirteen! Their oldest child is now sixty, and is only fifteen years younger than his mother. In 1870, George Labar had living a sister, aged eighty-six, another sister aged ninety-two, and a brother, in Canada, aged ninety-eight, a brisk old boy, who paid George a visit in 1868.

One of the most remarkable features of Labar's longevity is the fact that he voted for General Washington for President, and has voted at every Presidential election since, *and always for the Democratic candidate!* And yet he lived to be one hundred and twelve years old.

George Labar was one of the best-attested cases of extreme longevity on record, and while his extraordinary prolongation of life attests the value of a good constitution lived out in a rugged experience of outdoor life, it presents quite a serious difficulty in the way of the absolute doctrine of the anti-tobacco and whisky theory.

AND BUILDING LUMBER  
AT LOWEST CASH RATES.  
AT LOWEST CASH RATES.

**THOS. WILLIAMS, JR., & CO., EIGH-**  
TEENTH AND BAINBRIDGE STREETS, OF-  
FER FOR SALE WHITE AND YELLOW PINE,  
PLANED AND UNPLANED, RED CEDAR, HICK-  
ORY, OAK, ASH, WALNUT, POPLAR, SPRUCE,  
HEMLOCK, SHINGLES, &C. fel6-ly\*

**R. L. & C. L. NICHOLSON, 998 SOUTH**  
**R. SEVENTH, OFFER DRY, UNDER COVER,**  
CHOICE WORKED LUMBER OF EVERY DE-  
SCRIPTION, FOR JOBBING AND BUILDING  
LARGE STOCK OF POSTS, FENCING, SHIN-  
GLES. Hemlock and Spruce Joists at low prices. au4 6m\*

### FINANCIAL.

**\$7,000,** \$4,000 TO LOAN ON MORT-  
gage. LUKENS & MONTGOMERY,  
no27-4t\* 1033 Beach street.

**\$3,000** TO \$10,000 FOR WELL-SE-  
cured mortgages, at par.  
no25 6t\* THOS. SHIPLEY, No. 21 N. Seventh st.

**\$2,000.** \$2,500, \$3,000, to loan on mort-  
gage. E. CARPENTER,  
no12 tf\$ 128 South Sixth street.

**P. S. PETERSON & CO.,**

**STOCK COMMISSION**

**BROKERS,**

**No. 39 South Third Street.**

**JOHN FAREIRA**  
**49**  
South Third St.,  
**PHILAD'A.**

**BANKER AND BROKER.**

STOCKS, BONDS, Loans, State and City Securities  
bought and sold on Commission.

GOLD, SILVER, and all issues of Government Secu-  
rities bought and sold.

Particular attention given to investment orders.

Time Paper and Collateral Loans negotiated. sel5 3m\$

**B.K. JAMISON & Co.**

**BANKERS,**

**N. W. Corner Third and Chestnut Sts.,**  
**PHILADELPHIA.**

Gold, Stocks and Bonds bought and sold on commission

Particular attention given to Investment Securities.

Drafts issued on all parts of Europe. jel 1y\$

**THE UNION BANKING CO.,**

**Corner Fourth and Chestnut Sts.**

**CAPITAL, - - - \$700,000**

**COLLECTIONS,**

**Sight and Maturing Drafts, Notes, &c.,**  
**collected in all parts of the country.**

We have the largest direct correspondence in this city  
with interior Banks and Bankers, and will make prompt  
returns at low rates.

**Accounts and Collections respectfully**  
**solicited:**

**JAMES A. HILL, Cashier.**

**N. C. MUSSELMAN, President.**

1875-A CENTENARIAN.

**Death of Baron de Waldeck, the Traveller and Artist, in his One Hundred and Tenth Year.**

A cable telegram from Paris announces the death of Jean Frederick de Waldeck, traveller, artist, and centenarian. He belonged to an old noble family of Bohemia, and was born at Prague on the 16th of March, 1766. The date of his birth is well authenticated, and there can be no reasonable doubt that, at the time of his death, he had fully completed his one hundred and ninth year. Baron de Waldeck's life from early manhood was, in a large measure, a public one, and there was no chance and no disposition to dispute his claims to remarkable old age.

He is said to have come to France, when a mere child, in the train of the unfortunate Marie Antoinette, on her marriage with the Dauphin, and thenceforth Paris was his home as far as he had a settled habitation. Before he had attained his majority, Baron de Waldeck began his career as a traveller, visiting the Cape of Good Hope in 1785, and assisted Levallant in exploring Southern Africa. On his return to France he devoted some time to the study of painting in the studios of David and Prud'hon, and in 1794 enlisted as a volunteer in the Italian campaign. He was at the siege of Toulon, and accompanied the army to Egypt. Not being included in the capitulation, he resolved to traverse Africa from north to south. He left Assouan with four companions, traversed the Desert of Dagoula, crossed the Jibel-il-Eumery, and after great fatigues and trials, and after the death of all his companions, reached the coast of Portugal. He returned to France by way of Madagascar and the Cape, and in 1819 he was with Lord Cochrane in Chili.

M. de Waldeck afterwards went to make some archæological explorations in Guatemala, and subsequently furnished the lithographic illustrations of a publication on the ruins of Palenque and Chiapa. He next proceeded to Mexico, to explore the sites of Tlalpuxahua and other points of interest, and after wandering about for twelve years returned to France again and devoted himself to iconological studies. His explorations in Central America and Mexico earned him much distinction, and he was made a member of the Council of the Society of American Archæology. In 1837 he published *An Archæological and Picturesque Journey in Yucatan*, a work which had a large popularity and ran through several editions.

In 1826 Baron de Waldeck, being then already sixty years of age, and in want of money, presented some of his pictures at the Ecole des Beaux Arts, and asked 40,000 francs for them. M. Bastard, the Director, replied that the resources at his command did not permit him to make a purchase of that importance, but that if M. Waldeck consented he would obtain for him an annual allowance of 2,000 francs. For nearly half a century he had been in receipt of this pension, and the Government was compelled to pay very dearly for its purchase.

This remarkable old man remained in the full possession of his health and faculties up to the time of his death, and was accustomed to work eight or ten hours a day. As late as 1869 he exhibited in the Paris Salon two paintings representing subjects of Aztec archæology, under the title of *The Centenarian's Leisure*. During the later years of his life, he gave much time to the study of modern languages, for which he always possessed great aptitude, and he was said to be able to speak all the tongues of the leading nations of Europe fluently, and to have had a passable knowledge of twenty-one European and Asiatic languages. He was three times married, and by his last wife, who was young enough to be his grand-daughter, he leaves a son only twenty-four years old.

Dewey, from Manhattan; Schrs Nellie Crowell, from New York; dleton, from Charleston; Jas. Hewitt, from Philadelphia; and W. Haig, from Newbern, N. C., passed up this A. M.

Br. brig Margaret, for Queenstown for on passed down last evening.

Schr Howard A. Hunt, from Calbarien, passed this morning.

Four barks, one herm. brig, and several schrs sight off Reedy Island, coming up under sail.

Schr E. G. Willard, from Portland, below beating up.

Wind light from eastward. Thermometer, 48°

 **OFFICE CATAWISSA RAILROAD COMPANY, No. 424 WALNUT STREET PHILADELPHIA, May 1, 187**

The Board of Directors have this day declared dividend of **THREE AND ONE-HALF PER CENT.** on the Preferred Stock, and **TWO AND ONE-THIRD PER CENT.** on the Second Preferred Stock, payable on and after **WEDNESDAY 12th inst.**, to the parties in whose names said stock stood at the close of the transfer books on the ult.

**M. P. HUTCHINSON**  
President

51 10t

 **PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD COMPANY, TREASURER'S DEPARTMENT.**

**PHILADELPHIA, May 1, 187**  
**NOTICE TO STOCKHOLDERS.**

The Board of Directors have this day declared semi-annual dividend of **FOUR PER CENT.** on the capital stock of the Company, clear of all taxes, payable May 28.

On May 28 dividends will be paid to ladies after that date they must await their turn with other stockholders.

Blank powers of attorney can be had at the office of the company.

51 24t

**BAYARD BUTLER, Treasurer**

**"COAL OF ALL SITES."**

**BROKEN, EGG, STOVE, SMALL STOVE, AND FOR FAMILIES.**

**BAKERS, MANUFACTURERS, AND STOREKEEPERS.**

**WILLIAM W. ALTER'S COAL DEPOT**  
No. 957 N. NINTH Street, below Girard Avenue  
Office—Cor. SIXTH and WOOD.

**CHAS. D. BARNEY & CO.**

(LATE WITH JAY COOKE & CO.),

**STOCK AND NOTE BROKERS**

**114 South THIRD Street**

**PHILADELPHIA, PA.**

**STOCKS AND BONDS Bought and Sold on Commission, Paper Negotiated, Dividends collected, etc.**

**P. S. PETERSON & CO.**

**Stock Commission Brokers**

**No. 39 South THIRD Street**

417

**PHILADELPHIA**

**CHARLES CAMBLOS & CO.**

**Bankers and Brokers**

**No. 38 South THIRD Street**

**DEALERS IN GOVERNMENT SECURITIES, GOLD AND SILVER.**

Stocks and Bonds bought and sold on commission.  
Particular attention given to investments.

**B. K. JAMISON & CO.**

**BANKERS,**

**N.W. Corner THIRD and CHESTNUT**

**Streets, Philadelphia.**

**GOLD, STOCKS, and BONDS, bought and sold on commission.**

Particular attention given to investments.

Drafts issued on all parts of Europe.

**STOCKS AND BONDS**

**Bought and Sold on Commission**

**GOLD BOUGHT,**

**City Warrants Warranted**

*A Centenarian Bride.*—The Polish journal *Kalischania* reports the following extraordinary incident. In the village of Sompolno, in the department of Kalisch in Russian Poland, there lived a Jewish widow named Rajela Wilcznoka, aged 100 years. She lived with her daughter, who was herself 80 years of age, and who was great-grandmother to a child 16 years old. Notwithstanding her great age the widow Wilcznoka walked alone, had good sight, heard perfectly, and had an active mind. She has lately married a merchant, 88 years of age, living in Kalisch. Touching on this subject it is announced that at the time of the last census there were in Austria 183 men and 229 women who had attained or passed the age of 100 years.—*London Med. Record*, Dec. 15, 1878, from *L'Union Médicale*.

trations: cloth, \$6; leather, \$7.

**BARNES'S CLINICAL EXPOSITION OF DISEASES OF WOMEN.** Second American English edition. In one handsome octavo volume; cloth, \$4.50; leather, \$5.50.

**PLAYFAIR'S TREATISE ON THE SCIENCE OF MEDICINE.** Second American, from the second and last London edition, by ROBERT P. HARRIS, M.D. In one octavo volume with 182 illustrations; cloth, \$4; leather, \$5.

**FINLAYSON'S CLINICAL MANUAL FOR STUDENTS.** For the Use of Students and Practitioners. One volume of about 550 pages, with 85 illustrations. Cloth, \$3.50; leather, \$4.50.

**GREEN'S INTRODUCTION TO PATHOLOGY.** American, from the fourth enlarged and revised London edition, in octavo vol. of 332 pages, with 132 illustrations. Cloth, \$3.50; leather, \$4.50.

---

**In**

**HABERSHON ON THE DISEASES OF THE STOMACH,** and other parts of the Digestive System, including the Testes, and Peritoneum. Second American Edition, with illustrations. In one large octavo volume. *(In a few days.)*

**ELLIS'S DEMONSTRATIONS IN ANATOMY.** Human Body by Dissection. By GEORGE J. ELLIS, M.D. In two volumes. The first volume contains the dissections of the Human Body, from the neck to the pelvis. The second volume contains the dissections of the Human Body, from the pelvis to the feet. In two octavo volumes. Cloth, \$3.50; leather, \$4.50.

## FIFTY RECENT CENTENARIANS.

IT is well for the peace of mind of the Englishman who wrote a book, a while ago, in demonstration of his theory that no human being ever did—or could or would or should—live to be a hundred years old, that he has never been an “exchange reader” in an American newspaper office, inasmuch as that individual rarely fails of introduction to at least two or three centenarians a month, the year round—an experience which soon cures him of all skepticism concerning extreme longevity. The present article alludes to the cases of fifty centenarians recorded as living within the last two years, of whom nine died in 1873 and seventeen in 1874, and the remaining twenty-four are presumably still alive. Twenty-seven are women and twenty-three are men—though there seventeen are only four men among the centenarians who died in '74—and no one of the fifty is definitely referred to as unmarried. Nineteen States, including all those of New England, have representatives on the list, as do also Canada and England—Massachusetts exhibiting ten, or more than double the number of any other locality. In the Philadelphia *Ledger's* death-list of 1872, there were seven centenarians, of whom the eldest was Mary Loquaire, who was born in San Domingo in 1765 and came to America in 1790. A recent paragraph has also announced that no less than one hundred and ten centenarians have died in New Hampshire within the last half century, the

→over  
Christian Union,  
March, 1875

Augustus Picard, aged 107, who was born near Quebec, March 24, 1767, and who has a sister only two years younger than himself still living there. He was twice married, and had by each wife eight children, of whom the eldest is a son, aged eighty-five, residing at Point Levi, and the youngest daughter of fifty-five, with whom he lives, in Rochester. He has never tasted of tea or coffee, eggs or butter, but drinks a good deal of ale, is an inveterate smoker, and in former times also chewed tobacco and took snuff. The only sickness of his life was that resulting, at the age of eighty, from a fall from the roof of a house, where he was working at his trade of carpenter. He is a devoted Catholic, converses only in Canadian French, walks readily with a cane, and as he can not read or write he "never wears glasses." Joseph Porchy of Frenchtown, Penn., aged 102, is mentioned as having had a married life of eighty-five years, his first wedding taking place when he was but seventeen.

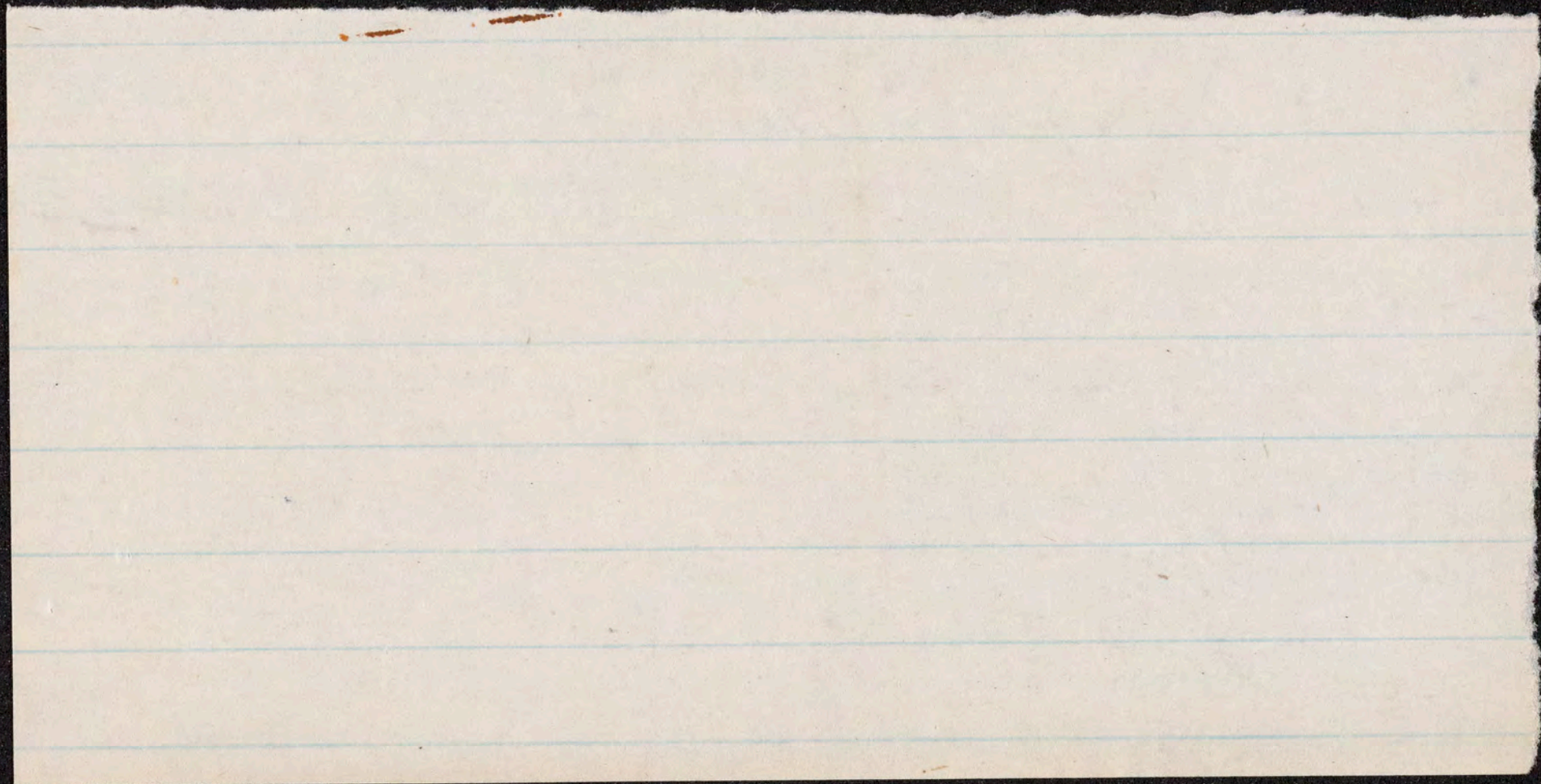
1874  
The oldest woman brought to light last year was Mrs. Katie Shepp, aged 120, who was visited in July by a newspaper correspondent at her home in the Massanutten Mountain, five miles east of Harrisonburg, Va. She was married on her twentieth birthday, in 1774, to a husband twenty years older than herself, who served as a wagoner in the War of Independence, and died sixty years ago. On the first day of February, Mrs. Anna Goss celebrated her 103d birthday, at Amherst, N. H., whither she came in 1785, and where she

W J Thoms, <sup>F.S.A.</sup> London, 1873,

On Human Longevity, considers that  
he disproves the cases of Henry Jenkins 169,  
Thos. Parr, 152, Countess of Desmond, 140, &  
Fred. Labrusch of N York, now living. But he  
admits 5 centenarians, proved: Jane Chasse<sup>sean</sup>  
(married) Williams, of London, 1739-1841; William  
Plank, of England, 1767-1867; Jacob W. Luning,  
of Hanover, 1767-1870; Catharine Eden, of England,  
& David Rennie of Scotland. His reviewer in the  
N.Y. Nation gives 7 other American cases - well  
authenticated; 4 Harvard graduates - Dr E.A. Holyoke,  
Tim. Farrar, Sampson Salter Blowers, Dr Ezra Green;  
also Daniel Weldo, of Conn, Deborah Barker (married)  
Piper, & Anna Stimpson (married) Dix.

Wm. H. H. H.

Mr J. Tripe, Pres. Lond. Meteorol. Soc., 1872,  
states that extreme (English) cold & heat  
both increase deaths from all diseases, [In  
Manchester, small-pox least from temp.  $52^{\circ}$  min  
in Spring, to  $54^{\circ}$  min, Sept. Scarlatina otherwise;  
least in Spring, - more again in hot weather.]



## LOCAL AFFAIRS.

**INFANT MORTALITY.**—A meeting of the Social Science Association was held yesterday evening, in the lecture-room of the Mercantile Library, on Tenth street, above Chesnut. Dr. Isaac Ray presided.

A paper on "Infant Mortality," and the necessity of a foundling hospital in Philadelphia, by Dr. John S. Parry, was read. Among other facts and figures cited in support of his proposition, Dr. Parry referred to the returns of the Board of Health, which showed that during the last five years there were born in this city 85,957 living, and 3933 dead infants. During this period there was a mortality of 22.36 per cent. among infants under one year old, and 29.82 per cent. died before reaching two years of age. Under five years the mortality was 36.81. From this it appears that of those who died under five years of age 60.73 per cent. died before reaching the first year. From the statistics of mortality it is ascertained that 63.61 per cent. of those dying under five years, died before the first year had been reached. He also affirmed that the per centage of inquests on children under one week old has increased since 1863, having attained to 17½ per cent. in the first three months of 1871. In other words, nearly one-fifth of all the inquests made by the Coroner were upon infants under one week old, and in the opinion of the Coroner a large proportion of these were infanticides.

Hen-  
D. KELLY,  
\*193

age of Sa-  
by Rev. R.  
E W. CAF-  
LUKENS,  
\*772

ay, by Rev.  
and Miss  
ia. \*215

1871, by the  
Oil City,  
city. \*189

at No. 252  
ickley, Mr.  
DIEZEL,  
\*216

instant, at  
he Rev. Wm.  
Miss MERCY  
\*570

f April, 1881.  
ighth street,  
Miss MAG-  
\*285

instant, at  
1402 Chris-  
ughlin, Mr.  
ss ELLA E.  
\*253

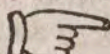
g of the 4th in-  
house of the  
RST to Miss  
\*116

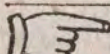
short illness,  
ter of James  
months.

From the circle she so much  
As each of us will utter she is dead-  
We'll endeavor to meet her above.

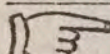
The relatives and friends of the fami-  
spectfully invited to attend the funeral,  
residence of her husband, 2259 Coral st.  
afternoon, at 3 o'clock. Body to be  
Vault at Palmer's Ground.

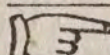
## RELIGIOUS NOTICES


 **SIXTH PRESBYTERIAN**  
Spruce street, below Sixth.—R-  
key will preach TO-MORROW at 10½  
P. M.

 **SCOTS PRESB. CHURCH**  
annual election to fill vacancies in  
Trustees, will be held in the Lecture R-  
DAY EVENING, May 8th, 1871, from  
After the ballots are announced, the r-  
will organize and elect their officers f-  
year. \*17 M. GRIE

 **FIFTH REF. PRESB. CONC**  
Friendship Hall.—Rev. M. Gail-  
at 3½ P. M. All invited.

 **SOUTH PRESBYTERIAN—**  
low Federal. Rev. R. M. Patter-  
7¾ TO-MORROW. Evening — "Sho-  
Man."

 **FIRST INDEPENDENT CH**  
ner of Broad and Sansom str-  
Chambers). Rev. Irwin H. Torrence w-  
10½ A. M., and Rev. Thomas X. Orr at

 **FOURTH REFORMED PRES**  
Church, Eighteenth and Filber-  
ing TO-MORROW (Communion), Sab-  
o'clock, by the Pastor, Rev. Dr. Steel-  
evening, at 7½ o'clock, by Rev. A. G. V-

~~A Jacobi, of N. Y.,  
Says (N. Y. Med. Record)  
Oct. 1, 1870, p. 338 —~~

~~"In the hot summer weather I  
make all my children take a little  
whisky or brandy in the water they  
drink."~~

~~Progressive  
Labio-glossal-laryngeal Palsy.  
Duchenne (de Boulogne) 1861; Charcot,  
Duméril, Chomier, &c. Yellow pigmentary  
degeneration of nerve-cells of medulla  
oblong. — in the "articular tract" when together  
or quite facial, vagus, hypoglossal, laryngeal  
(internal branches) nerves. Hopeless.  
Chomier, med. Record as above.~~

Increasing mortality of Infants.

In New York, 1870,  $\frac{1}{2}$  die 24 & upwards,  
1857,  $\frac{1}{2}$  2 years old.

In Philadelphia, 1807,  $\frac{1}{2}$  after 24 yrs;  
1836  $\frac{1}{2}$  under 4 yrs: not usually <sup>more</sup> than  
From  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $\frac{1}{3}$  die under 1 year.  <sub>$\frac{1}{2}$  under 5; after less.</sub>  
Cincinnati, 1867, 70, nearly  $\frac{1}{2}$  under 5 yrs.

(N.Y. Med. Record, Oct. 1. 1870)

Dr. Decaisne of Paris, insists. 661 female  
operators, <sup>proves</sup> sewing machine ~~not~~ production  
of metrorrhoea, peritonitis, miscarriage, leucorrhoea, more  
than other workmen.

Causes of Deaths -

(~~dear~~ accidents apart)

Consumption everywhere takes the  
lead - In England <sup>more than</sup> 5000 deaths  
from it annually.

In Ohio of 10,000 deaths 2000 phthisis

N. Y.

"

6000

"

Maryland

"

2000

"

Dysentery Cholera next  
except that all kind of fever  
together are in advance of them  
20,000 deaths from typhoid annually  
in England alone.

Deaths from children's diseases  
most numerous in our Northern cities.  
over

2

D. C. Jarvis states that  
every <sup>over</sup> 1000 in Massach. die more  
than 20 yrs, 3 1/4 died of disease  
of the lungs — 137 died of dys-  
teny — 78 disease of  
brain 5 1/4 of old age.

In England 1/5 <sup>of all deaths</sup> die from  
phthisis — 1/20 from typhus —  
Small pox now about 1/40 (to 1/50)

Most of phthisis & pneumonia  
& nervous ~~dyspepsia~~ <sup>disorders</sup> in  
towns — e.g. fast convulsions

in children: — marked difference  
order of frequency of causes in Philad<sup>a</sup> —  
1. Consumption, — 2. Scarlet fever — 3. Pneumonia  
4. Convulsions, 5. Measles, 6. Typhus & Typhoid fever  
7. Diarrhea & Dysentery, 8. Small pox.

# Medical Department of Life Insurance.

## THE INFLUENCE OF CERTAIN EMPLOYMENTS UPON THE HEALTH OF THOSE ENGAGED THEREIN.

By DR. LUDWIG HIRT,

OF BRESLAU, GERMANY.

Translated by R. PERCY ALDEN, of New York.)

### THE EFFECTS OF ZINC VAPORS ON WORKMEN ("BRASS-FOUNDERS' AGUE.")

*Greenhow*, Med. Times and Gaz., Vol. i. p. 227. 1812.  
—*Schnitzer*, Fieber bei Messinggiessern, Preuss. Vereins-Zeitung, N. F. V. 25. 1862.—*Husemann*, a. O. S. 929. 1862.—*Greenhow*, Med. Chir. Transact. xxv. p. 177. 1864.—*Lévy*, Traité d'Hygiène publique et privée, vol. ii. p. 929, ff. 1869.

THE cause of the affection in question was for a long time an object of dispute: while Plaseller, who distinguished it by the name of "brass-workers' dust fever," believed that it existed in consequence of the inhalation of zinc-dust, Blandet, Becquerel, Greenhow and others supposed that it might be brought into connection with the vapors of zinc. The probability of this view will become almost a certainty by observing that workmen who are exposed to the influence of zinc-dust, without inhaling vapors, are never subject to the "brass-founders' ague."

It remains now only to ask, Whether the vapors of zinc alone, or together with those of other metals, cause a tendency to the disease? We have often noticed in various places that the workmen in zinc-furnaces, in other words, people who breathe scarcely anything but vapors of zinc, remain almost entirely exempt from the disease, while those workmen who are engaged in casting—brass-workers, brass-founders, girdlers, etc.—acquire it very frequently.

Now, whether it is the copper fumes which are formed simultaneously with the fumes of brass, which work together to cause the origin of the trouble, or whether the ultimate cause of "brass-founders' ague" is to be sought in the arsenic which is contained in small quantities in the zinc, is not yet easy to determine, while we for our part do not hesitate to pronounce the "brass-founders' ague" to be an acute case of metal poisoning caused by the fumes of zinc and copper.

The author has twice in his own person, and repeatedly in brass-founders, observed the symptoms and course of the disease somewhat as follows:—

Some hours after a person has attended the casting a peculiarly uncomfortable feeling all over the body is noticed, pains in the back (more or less severe), and a general lassitude necessitating retirement from one's customary occupation; while the pains shift, now to this side, now to that, and annoy in the highest degree, there is nothing remarkable to be observed either in the pulse or in the respiration. However, in a short time—usually soon after the sufferer has gone to bed—chills set in, which soon increase to a violent ague lasting a quarter of an hour or longer; in such cases the pulse within half an hour or an hour reaches 100 to 120 beats per minute. A tormenting cough, with a sore sensation in the breast, appears, and a pain in the forehead, increasing more and more with the violent spasms of the cough, makes the situation unpleasant in the highest extreme. Soon, however—at most after a few hours—the turning-point of the disease is

reached; profuse perspiration marks the beginning of the stage of defervescence, and during a gradual disappearance of the symptoms the sufferer falls into a deep sleep, from which he awakes either cured or at least convalescent—only a general lassitude and slight headache reminding him of what he has undergone.

Running its course in this way, the "brass-founders' ague" appears very frequently, and at least 75 per cent. of founders, etc., have to undergo it once or oftener.

Whoever has once had it, enjoys the pleasing prospect of getting it again at every casting. It probably never happens that one gets accustomed to the danger; only very few individuals, as a rule, enjoy immunity from it.

The *diagnosis* is at times difficult, if the moment of seizure be not known, and the mistake is commonly made of confounding it at its commencement with a violent attack of intermittent fever; its further progress will soon show the error. Further mistakes are owing to the rapidity with which the complaint disappears;—at the second visit of the physician, the patient is found restored to health,—scarcely conceivable!

The *prognosis* is absolutely favorable when no complications are present, and entire restoration of health follows, at the latest, in forty-eight hours.

The "brass-founders' ague" does not require any special treatment. Hot milk is given for the troublesome cough, and experienced founders partake of it in large quantities on the day of casting, under all circumstances.

No means of preventing the breaking out of the disease are of any avail.

### THE EFFECTS OF VAPORS OF SALT ON WORKMEN.

*Hezel*, Fr., De Valetudine salis coctorum. Altorf, 1731.—*Halfort*, a. a. O. S., 606. Berlin, 1845.—*Trautwein*, Der Salinenprocess, die Arbeiter in den Salinen u. deren Krankheiten. Casper's Vierteljahrschr. Bd. VIII. S. 17. 1855.—*Hirt*, L., Ueber die Gesundheitsverhältnisse der Salinenarbeiter. Wien. med. Wochenschr. 7. Jahrg., No. 88, 89. 1867.

By the term "vapors of salt" we mean the air prevailing in rock-salt mines, and in the boiling-houses of salt-works, and which may be recognized by a person unused to it by its salty taste. There is also to be mentioned here the air prevailing in the neighborhood of "drying-houses," chemically changed by the evaporation of salt-water—the "drying-house air"—which through a relatively considerable amount of salt particles is characterized by free muriatic acid, arising from the decomposition of the chlorate of potash of the salt-water. The influence which this salt vapor has upon the workmen has been frequently misunderstood and over-estimated. When we learn from Italian physicians, such as Ramazzini, Lanzoni of Ferrara, and others, that workmen become cachectical and dropsical from the inhalation of vapors of salt; when Daniel Drake ("A Systematic Treatise, etc., on the Principal Diseases of the Interior Valley of North America," etc., Cincinnati, 1850) informs us that the refiners in the American salt refineries suffer from diarrhoea and defective composition of the blood, these statements must easily excite our wonder, and cause us to reflect that in these diseases, if otherwise the observations of this widely extended professional research are correct, atmospheric influences are perhaps to be taken into consideration.

The condition of health of workmen breathing vapors of salt bears witness, as we have frequently had

opportunities of verifying, to the fact that the kind of air in question has absolutely no unfavorable effect on the organism, and that there are no diseases which are alone referable to this cause. Our researches, undertaken in this direction, refer to the rock-salt workers in Stassfurt (1872), and to the salt-mine workmen (driers and refiners) of Reichenhall (1867) and Schönebeck (1872).

Among the Stassfurt workmen the state of health is generally very good, and lung diseases especially are very rare; there is likewise nothing unusual to be observed in the way of diseases of the digestive organs; and only when a thick mass of powder-smoke is collected in the galleries, in consequence of heavy blasts, do the workmen complain of nausea, headache, etc.,—slight inconveniences, which certainly have no connection with vapors of salt. For actually harmful influences in this branch of industry, see Hirt, "Krankheiten der Arbeiter," vol. ii. p. 162.

The examination of the salt-miners furnished similar favorable results, especially that of the driers, who are not obliged, like the refiners, to work in a high, steady temperature, 82° to 89° Fahr., with considerable bodily exertion. While in consequence of this we noticed in the latter, occasionally, general lassitude, languor, indolence, a paleness of the face, etc., the state of health of the former, who live under the influence of vapors of salt, was certainly remarkably good. Neither diseases of the respiratory nor digestive organs were to be observed among them. On the contrary, their health is better and more lasting than that of any other class of workmen.

#### THE EFFECTS OF OIL-FUMES ON WORKMEN.

Ramazzini's Abhandlung, bearbeitet von Ackerman, Bd. I. S. 28 ff. u. Bd. II. S. 214 ff. 1780.—*Halfort*, a. a. O. S. 605. 1846.

In order to study the effects of fumes of oil upon workmen, and especially to determine whether, as a consequence, particular forms of disease are developed, it is necessary to distinguish between the fumes which the *fat oils* and those which *volatile oils* produce in the course of their extraction and manufacture.

Let us dwell for a moment on the former class, and if we take rape-seed oil as a specimen of the kinds of oil most frequently used, we shall find that in the reduction of this oil a peculiar smell is diffused all over the working-rooms, which is by no means agreeable to those unaccustomed to it. It moreover frequently happens that during the first hour of their stay, sensitive persons suffer from headache and nausea, and often vomit. From this fact we must not, however, conclude that any pernicious effect of the fumes is noticeable among workmen used to the oily atmosphere.

Ramazzini was the first (and is, doubtless, the only one) who has complained of the dangerous consequences of the fumes of oil, and astonished us with the information that the workmen suffer from coughs, choking-rheum, vertigo, and cachexy.

Our own investigations, which were made in very extensive oil-works, have in this particular led to an entirely opposite result, and we are not able to corroborate Ramazzini's assertions in the slightest degree.

On the contrary, it seems to us more than probable that the fumes found in oil-works possess certain curative influences, as, for example, they are able not only essentially to reduce bronchial catarrh, but also to prevent it. Individuals who enter the works weak in body, narrow-chested, and greatly disposed to catarrh, soon become sensibly stronger and able to

withstand outside influences, such as change of temperature, etc.

These favorable changes, which, as we often have opportunities of observing, are produced in the systems of workmen during their employment in oil-works, we believe may be ascribed solely to the influence of fumes of oil.

Whether these observations which we have communicated may perhaps be of value, in a therapeutic point of view, we leave undecided.

The influence which the fumes of volatile oils exercise upon workmen manifests itself in quite a different way from that first described. While we take it for granted that the technical part of the process of manufacturing them is understood, let us observe that in this branch of industry there are still other influences besides those in question which are pernicious to health, and which require consideration, and it is possible that in this way the poorer state of health of the workmen can be accounted for. But the vapor of volatile oils by itself alone is not unimportant, even if our investigations have not been made to their usual extent, and furthermore have been confined to a few works in Leipzig, still they have assuredly taught us that, 1st. There is nothing to be perceived here of the favorable (?) effect of the fumes of fat oils; and, 2d. That certain conditions of ill-health, if they are not developed by, yet owe their origin to, the fumes of volatile oils. These appear to relate chiefly to the nervous system, and are soon discovered in general lassitude, headache, nausea, etc.

We can state nothing further concerning the relative frequency of these diseases among workmen, except that in the works visited by us, they certainly appeared very rarely. According to statements of workmen, the state of affairs seems to be essentially the same in other works which, for easily understood reasons, were inaccessible to us. Further investigations on this subject seem to be urgently needed.

#### THE EFFECTS OF FUMES OF TURPENTINE ON WORKMEN.

Roche, Ueber Vergiftung durch Terpentindämpfe, l'Union, 36. 1856.—*Marchal de Calvi*, Vergiftung durch Terpentindunst, l'Union, 32-35, 45. 1856, und Ibid. 150. 1857.—*Liersch*, Zur Vergiftung durch Terpentindunst, Casper's Vierteljahrschr., Bd. XXII. S. 232. 1862.—*Husemann*, a. a. O. S., 423. 1863.—*Chevallier*, Des dangers qui peuvent résulter du séjour dans les localités où l'essence de Térébenthine ou d'autres produits analogues se trouvent en expansion, Ann. d'hyg. publi. II., Sér. xx., p. 95. 1863.—*Eulenberg*, a. a. O. S., 453, 1865.—*Schuler*, Die glamerische Baumwollenindustrie, Vierteljahrschr. f. öffentl. Gesundheitspflege, Bd. VI., Heft i., S. 103. Braunsch., 1872.

Among the so-called soft resins and balsams which produce the solutions of resin in volatile oils, there is none better calculated to interest us than turpentine. It is not only because it has found a widely extended use in manufacture and art, so that it figures in numerous trade-industries, but also on account of the influence which the handling of this substance exerts upon the health of the workmen;—a highly interesting study, to which attention was called half a century ago.

Patissier was the first who, in 1822, gave it as his opinion that people who were obliged continually to breathe the fumes of turpentine were apt to suffer from various disorders, especially coughs and attacks resembling colic.

Soon afterwards a few, then numerous observations

corroborated this opinion, and gradually, on every side, the conviction was created that the fumes of turpentine exercised an evil influence on the system, and were perhaps even directly poisonous.

Although Marchal de Calvi never entered upon casuistic discussions, and although their number was by no means inconsiderable, yet the question would not have been soon decided, had not trustworthy observers (Chevallier, Lévy) established that they had discovered a remarkably fine condition of health in works where turpentine fumes abundantly prevailed, and that no traces of colic, nervous troubles, diseases of the respiratory organs, etc., were there to be found. After the path of physiological experiment on animals had been trodden (by Liersch) without obtaining any other decided result than that the fumes in question exercised an unmistakably evil influence on small mammals, even so far as to cause death in consequence, it seemed to the author to be eminently proper, departing from the usual custom, to use human beings themselves as objects of experiment, and to study the effects of the various kinds of inhalations.

In order to decide rightly upon the causes of ill-health arising from the breathing of fumes of turpentine, we must distinguish the effects produced upon the system by inhalations of a comparatively great quantity of turpentine, lasting but for a short while, from those of long-lasting, often-repeated inhalations of but comparatively small quantities of turpentine.

Inhalations lasting but for a short time have the following effects, as the author has observed them in his own person, as well as in a number of workmen: While at first they accelerate the respiration and circulation (pulse 92, breathing 26, in a minute), there soon follow slowness of breathing and later slowness in the movement of the heart. After the inhalation has lasted several minutes, dull headache, tingling in the ear, an inclination to vomit, appear. After the inhalation is concluded (gauze-mask, 20-25 drops of the oil of turpentine, inhaled from 10 to 12 minutes), considerable lassitude, nausea, sickness, and inclination to vomit remain; the odor of violets in the urine was not noticed. From these symptoms it follows that inhalations of short duration, in which a comparatively small amount of turpentine is absorbed by the system, always exercise an evil influence on human beings (of course excepting cases where it is employed therapeutically), and at first the breathing and the movement of the heart will be affected, and with larger doses the brain, and perhaps the spinal marrow also. Stupor occasionally precedes a "stage of exaltation."

The influence which long-continued inhalations (lasting uninterruptedly for an hour at a time and often repeated) exercise on the organizations of workmen we may state from observations made by us on twenty-one workmen, as follows:

1st. In a quantity of cases (about twenty-five per cent.) the fumes act harmfully, principally on the organs of respiration. Some weeks after beginning work a cough appears, accompanied by pain in the breast; the workmen become thin, and (provided that their labor has been uninterrupted) show after some months all the symptoms of a chronic destructive process in the lungs.

In these cases the opinion of Lombard is undoubtedly correct, that pulmonary consumption often occurs in consequence of breathing the fumes of drying oil and varnish.

2d. In a few cases a lasting pernicious effect upon the canals of the stomach and intestines is produced.

We think that many of the assertions made as to

this should be received with caution, because the employment of turpentine often supposes the simultaneous action of lead upon the system (varnishers, painters, etc.), and the symptoms resembling those of colic which then appear, such as constipation, with severe pain in the stomach, may be more readily ascribed to the influence of lead than to that of turpentine.

In the twenty-one cases examined by us, no one complained of serious disorders of the digestive canal arising from the breathing of fumes of turpentine, yet the possibility of such a connection is not to be questioned.

Schuler (compare Lit.) has noticed cases of that nature.

The uropoietic system is sometimes sympathetically affected. Ischuria, as well as hæmaturia (Harris and Colton), although rare, have been several times observed after inhalation of turpentine.

3d. As to what concerns the effects on the brain and spinal marrow, these inquiries, in view of the symptoms just described, must be of little importance, for even if most workmen, at the commencement of their labors, suffer from headache, *muscæ volitantes*, *tinnitus aurium*, etc., yet these are symptoms which, unless they increase so much as to cause anxiety, soon disappear.

4th. In about ten per cent. of all cases, where the mere inhalation of the fumes of turpentine was under question, we noticed absolutely no pernicious effects whatsoever caused thereby. Among our workmen were two (one house-painter and one color-grinder) who had worked for a long time in an atmosphere of turpentine without being in the slightest degree affected. Here belong the observations of Lévy, and the (not very numerous) cases of people inhabiting rooms freshly painted in oil without any injury to their health.

If we now connect together the results of our observations, it will be found that long-continued, oft-repeated inhalations of fumes of turpentine but slightly concentrated, often cause no evil effects whatsoever; should they however do so, they will affect the lungs most frequently and severely, less frequently the stomach, intestines and kidneys, and the brain and spinal marrow never.

NOTE.—The fumes which asphalt—a black shining resin, made by gradual oxidation of petroleum—creates in its manufacture, were for a long time thought to be prejudicial to the health. In the work of Krauss and Pichler (*Encyclopädisches Wörterbuch der Staatsarzneikunde*, Bd. I. S. 158) we find an article expressing itself somewhat in that sense; and also in a treatise on the boiling of asphalt in the open air (*Archiv der Deutschen Med. Gesetzgebung*, III. 24), we read something similar. Nevertheless this is not the case; the fumes which arise in boiling asphalt (for the repairing of pavements, etc.), cannot be considered as injurious to health, as observations in English and Scotch establishments have taught us. Even in the case of the workmen who are employed at the kettles, and who are most exposed, there is too small an amount of irritation produced by the fumes of asphalt on the organs of respiration, to cause any deterioration of the health. On the other hand, we have frequently observed, as for instance at G. M. & Co.'s works at Glasgow, where one hundred workmen are constantly engaged with asphalt, that these fumes exert a healthful influence on bronchial catarrhs, which have sprung from causes occurring at other times, and that, in consequence of this, patients suffering from protracted catarrh have been ordered by their physicians to try an atmosphere of asphalt. Let it be remarked

in passing, that their labor, which is performed for the most part in the open air, is not only consistent with good health, but rather contributes to the fine physical condition of the workers in asphalt.

### THE NORMAL MAN.

By EDWARD H. SIEVEKING, M.D.\*

WERE insurances effected upon every member of the community indiscriminately, and did every company take its due proportionate share, the risk and the result could be calculated with absolute certainty, as the duration or prospect of life of each member of the community can be accurately determined. But the nature of our social relations makes it necessary that the lives taken by insurance companies should be selected lives, and that they should approach as nearly as possible to a standard of perfect health.† Although in all well-regulated States the statistics referable to the entire population are reliable even to minute details, the individual is subject to accidents which cannot be foreseen or calculated, and therefore, as only a limited number of people appreciate the value of life insurance, and there are always many who would be willing to benefit themselves to the detriment of the insurance company, it is necessary that the latter should be on its guard against involuntary deception or actual fraud. A company that took no precautions as to selecting average lives, would, as has been repeatedly the case, soon find its assets incapable of covering its liabilities. And one of the first conditions of successful life insurance business is, that there should be no doubt as to its being at any time able to fulfil its engagements towards those who have invested their money in premiums with a view to securing for themselves or their successors a stipulated benefit.

It is equally to the interest of the insurer and the policy-holder that every guarantee should be obtained that the latter offers all the conditions of good health, which means that he possesses no hereditary taint, and that his organs and functions are in a condition to enable him to bear the wear and tear of life without unnecessary detriment. He should approach as nearly as possible the ideal or typical man, the limit of whose age may reasonably be assumed to lie somewhere between 70 and 80.‡ Practically it is impossible to insure perfect health in a large number of insurers, though Dr. Fleming and others show that in the aggregate their rate of mortality is lower than that occurring among the general population. The influences that we are all subject to, owing to the hereditary impress we receive before birth, the neglect of sanitary laws, the friction we undergo in our passage through life, the labor and anxiety associated with existence, impair in the individual, to a great extent, the standard of perfect health, which theoretically may be attained. For this deviation the tables of insurance premiums are calculated to make due allowance; for if there

were not a proper margin for the accidents of life, no insurance business could be safely conducted, and it is, even with that condition, necessary to have large averages, in order to secure permanence and stability.

Before proceeding to the consideration of those elements which impair the prospect of life and diminish the working capabilities of our organism, it may be well to devote some space to the examination of the conditions which constitute perfect health, and of the means at our disposal to determine their existence. It is the departure from these conditions that constitutes the real difficulty of the medical referees of life insurance associations, who are bound to reverse the legal theory that every man is innocent until he be proved guilty, and to assume that every candidate for insurance is more or less unsound until his physical health is conclusively established.

We cannot regard the individual as self-contained. From the earliest history of man the influences imparted by progenitors to their descendants have been recognized; and though such influences may be neutralized or modified by training and education, they will ever imperatively demand a large share in the estimate of individual quality and character. The Mosaic account of the origin and development of the Jewish race has a red line of genealogical doctrine running through it, which presents features of the greatest interest to the student of mankind; while the "Fortes creantur fortibus et bonis" of Horace is only one of the many instances of a recognition of the same principle by profane writers of antiquity, which has received larger and more scientific treatment by philosophic inquirers of recent times.

For the purposes of life insurance it is necessary to determine the existence and the character of hereditary influence from three aspects. The evidence obtainable may be derived from preceding generations, from collaterals, and from descendants. It has been too much the custom to pay regard only to the vital power of progenitors; but, important as this point is, we shall find, when discussing special morbid taints, that the health of collaterals offers very valuable indications as to the health of an insuree, which are not afforded or not accessible when the former alone is examined. The condition of descendants, in the nature of things, does not so frequently assist in determining the health of their predecessors, because, though theoretically of similar import, the age of insurers generally militates against this element becoming an item in the calculation of their vital power. Apart from the actual health of the progenitors, physiological conditions come into play, that frequently determine the viability of their offspring, some of which at least are readily ascertainable. To these belong the relative ages of the parents at the time of the insuree's birth. Great disparity of age is justly regarded as exercising a prejudicial influence, even though other points are favorable. Blood relationship, again, which in this country is not a bar to marriage in degrees that physiologically are objectionable, leads to the production of a sickly offspring, which may not at the time of insurance have exhibited any failure of power, but which nevertheless would be less capable of resisting morbid influences, to which they must sooner or later be subjected. It is this power of resisting disease, the *vis insita*, to which in all cases the medical referee's attention requires to be specially directed. The actual malady or morbid taint is comparatively easy of detection, but the gauge that is to test the insuree lies in the means of estimating his ability to undergo the heat and burden of active life,

\* An extract from his work entitled, *The Medical Adviser in Life Assurance*. London, J. & A. Churchill. 1874.

† For details connected with, and in illustration of, this train of thought, the reader will do well to refer to an admirable treatise by Dr. J. G. Fleming, of Glasgow, entitled *Medical Statistics of Life Assurance*. Glasgow, 1862. The work is unfortunately out of print, and we have had much difficulty in obtaining a copy for reference. In a careful analysis of the deaths and causes of death occurring in thirty-six years in the Scottish Amicable Society, Dr. Fleming places before his readers numerous interesting and important conclusions, some of which we shall take the opportunity of reproducing in our pages.

‡ This agrees with the scriptural threescore years and ten; but it is to be observed that in Genesis (vi. 3) the days of man are promised to be one hundred and twenty years. Flourens and Buffon are both of opinion that the natural term of existence is one hundred years.

and to ward off or bear with impunity the noxious influences which he cannot altogether escape.

In the increasing intercourse among the nations of the world, and the intermarriage between different races, considerations may be expected to arise, which, with the spread of life insurance to the dependencies of Great Britain, will merit future discussion. The deterioration of race in various parts of the globe has already attracted attention, and it is an acknowledged fact that the burgher population of Ceylon, descended from the earlier Dutch settlers, no longer presents the sturdy characteristics of their forefathers. As yet, fortunately, we possess no analogous declension in any British community; but the locality of birth, even where the parents are healthy, already deserves the attention of the medical referee in the examination of English lives. Whether, in the course of time,\* a change in the habits, and the adoption of hygienic measures not yet appreciated, may modify the effect of climate, remains to be seen; but for the present it is an undoubted fact that the healthy children of healthy English parents, born in tropical regions, after a few years pine away, and, unless sent to temperate zones, lose the vigor which is their inheritance. The longer their return is delayed, the greater will be, *cæteris paribus*, the impairment of vital power, which, apart from actual disease, will tend unfavorably to modify this susceptibility to disease, and to diminish their prospects of longevity.

As regards temporary residence in various countries, it is questionable whether, in the present state of social intercourse, and with the improved methods of communication and sanitary appliances of all kinds, it can be considered as affecting life insurance prejudicially. Messrs. Bailey and Day† show, in opposition to Dr. Guy, that the members of the peerage enjoy a high average duration of life, and remark that the male lives of that class enter the army and navy in large numbers, travel extensively, and are more exposed to what assurance offices consider extra risks than the middle classes. They infer that differences of climate have less effect on human mortality than differences of occupation and position in life, and that, as the offices do not attach much importance to the latter, they might relax somewhat in their estimate of the former. We willingly adopt the corollary without the reason assigned, for we hold that offices ought to be more particular than they are in considering the influence of occupation on the expectation of life.

Physically, as well as morally, the child is undoubtedly "the father of the man." Everything, therefore, that aids in the normal growth of the infant, materially affects its future well-being. Hot-house plants, and plants over-stimulated by rich manure, are the exact prototypes of children reared in a manner calcu-

lated to anticipate the normal periods of development. The laws of nature are not difficult to read that bear upon this matter; and were it possible to go into the question of early training of our applicants for insurance, we should doubtless be able to fix, with greater certainty than we now possess, their future chances of life. I allude more particularly to the feeding of infants,\* to the prejudicial influence of hand-feeding, adopted for various reasons to which it is unnecessary to allude here, in lieu of the only physiologically correct food for infants, the maternal milk. During the later periods of childhood, the employment of artificial stimuli of all kinds, physical, emotional, and intellectual, largely impairs brain-growth, muscle-growth, blood-growth, either by a development of one part of the organism at the expense of another, or by directly stunting the entire process of nutrition.

We need scarcely dwell longer on the aspects of childhood in reference to life insurance at present. Although some offices present an attractive feature with reference to early insurance, by which the premiums are returnable if death occurs before the age of 21, this very arrangement renders as close an investigation into the antecedents of the child less necessary than it becomes during the periods of life after growth is completed, and when applications for insurance are most largely made. But when manhood is established, the question of the extent to which, within the limits of health, variations of structure and function may exist, become of paramount importance; and it is here that we particularly look for a standard of comparison by which to determine the departure from the typical man, without recognizing a positively morbid condition.

The remarks that follow are chiefly the result of observations made upon members of that somewhat complex race to which the modern Briton† belongs; and as he is not regarded as inferior to any of his contemporaries, whatever is true in him may be applicable to mankind at large.

The period of complete manhood is fixed by law at 21; but physiologically this is certainly not universally correct, for although development may be regarded as accomplished in every respect at this age in the healthy English female, and vertical growth may have terminated even in the male, a man's vital power cannot be regarded as having attained its maximum development until about the age of 30.‡ For some years after the youth has ceased to grow, in the ordinary sense of the word, the dimensions of his chest, the great index of vital power, continue to expand, and numerous are the instances derived from military experience, showing that recruits at the age of 20 are unable to undergo the fatigue of active service that is borne with impunity by men of a more mature age§. They are literally not as yet well knit

\* That such an anticipation is reasonable is borne out by facts already at our disposal: thus it is found that although, according to the sanitary report of the Bengal Presidency for 1871, the death of European children in the plain of India, amounts to 91.4 per 1,000, the mortality at a school in Rajpootana, in existence since 1854, on Mount Abou, has only been 8 per 1,000. The site of the school is 4,500 feet above the level of the sea, and enjoys a mean temperature of 69° F. In order to show the contrast between the ordinary mortality of English children brought up in England and India respectively, we annex the following tabular statement of their death-rates, compiled by Dr. Fayrer (*Brit. Med. Journ.*, May 3, 1873):

	England.	India.
Under five years.....	67.58	148.10 per 1,000.
Five to ten years.....	8.80	17.73
Ten to fifteen years.....	4.98	11.51

We experience some doubt as to these numbers being correct, as the mortality for the children in England is manifestly too low; but Dr. Fayrer's authority stands too high to doubt the general results to which the table points.

† On the Rate of Mortality amongst the Families of the Peerage.—*Assurance Magazine*, July, 1861.

\* Those who wish to study the laws governing the nutrition and development of the child, are particularly referred for valuable information to Dr. Edward Smith's elaborate work on Health and Disease, as influenced by the Daily, Seasonal, and other Cyclical Changes in the Human System. London, 1861.

† This term is used advisedly, because there are observed differences between the three chief divisions of the inhabitants of Great Britain; and if the term Englishman were employed here, it might lay the writer open to the imputation of wishing to ignore features indicating a physical superiority of the Scotchman or the Irishman. For the purpose in view, such a distinction would be unnecessary.

‡ Quetelet (*Sur l'Homme et le Développement de ses Facultés*, Paris, 1835) shows that the growth of man cannot be regarded as universally complete at the age of 25; see his Tables of Measurement taken on inhabitants of Bruxelles, vol. ii. p. 13. Quetelet also gives tables showing the completion of female growth at 20, and the completion of male growth at 30.

§ For detailed information upon this point, the reader is especially referred to Professor Aitken's work, *On the Growth of the Recruit*: 1862.

together. Several important bones are not perfectly consolidated, and it may be specially mentioned that the sternum, which has to bear so great a strain in labored respiration, and is specially taxed by the weight of the soldier's knapsack, is not converted into a single plate of bone until after the thirtieth year. It is not until the sixth quinquennial period of life that our leading anatomical authorities find that the following events, connected with the consolidation of the skeleton, took place:—1. Completion of the vertebral column; 2. Completion of the sacrum; 3. Coalescence of the third with the second piece of the sternum; 4. Completion of the ribs; and 5. Coalescence of the haunch-bones with their crests.

The average height of an Englishman brought up under favorable circumstances is 5 feet 9 $\frac{3}{4}$  inches, which is notably above that of the average Belgian, Frenchman, or Italian. The height of the average English female appears to be about 5 feet 2 inches.\* It would be difficult to fix the limits at which height and health are incompatible. The downward range is certainly larger than the upward range, which appears due to the fact that the vital organs, the heart, and the chylipoietic viscera do not keep pace in development with the muscular and osseous systems of persons exceeding the normal elevation. We more frequently meet with people of diminutive stature, with a perfectly equable development of external and internal organs, who, for purposes of life insurance, would offer every reasonable guarantee for their viability, than with men and women materially exceeding the average stature, in whom some invalidating element in the organs of sanguification, circulation, and innervation may not be traced. *Cæteris paribus*, the small person is more easily nourished, and if, at the same time, the respiratory function is well carried on, which we shall shortly see is one of the most assured signs of vigor, he is on the whole better adapted for the warfare of life than his overgrown neighbor, to whom, possibly, he may look up with envy.

We will next examine the bearing of the weight of the individual upon health. Here we find, normally, a progressive increase from birth to the decline of life, which must not be regarded as identical with development, as we have seen that the full growth of the body reaches its acme in the third decennium of life. The increase of weight that takes place at a later period is due to the accumulation of fat under the skin and in the cavities of the body, and, as is well known, very commonly assumes morbid proportions, which often affect the life insurance value of the individual. From birth† the male sex exceeds the female, both in size as well as weight, and this prevails throughout life excepting, according to Quetelet,‡ at the age of 12, when the weight of both is the same; but it appears, according to the same authority, that the female attains her maximum of weight at a later period of life than the male.

According to Liharzik,§ the normal growth of the human body is completed at the end of the twenty-fifth year. He estimates the mean height of a "growing lad" at 18 years at 163 centimetres, or 64.17 inches, and that of a man who has completed his normal growth at 68.9 inches.

The average weight of a young Englishman of 21 is 151 lbs., but the table in ordinary use to determine

the normal height and weight of applicants for insurance is given for the age of 30, at which there is already an increase upon the former estimate; it will also be seen that the average increase per inch of stature above 5 feet is 5 $\frac{1}{8}$  lbs., although the range of variation at different heights is greater than might have been supposed *a priori*.

Although the standard supplied by the table in general use may be regarded as a valuable indication of the individual's health, it must not be relied upon alone as a test of his suitability for insurance. Considerable variations occur within limits that do not impair the prospect of longevity; but where they are marked, greater care is requisite to determine the value of other points that bear upon the viability of the person under examination. Such variations depend upon race, employment, age, habits of life, sex, and temperament, which, from the absence of sufficient data, it would be impossible to formularize, but which, nevertheless, are roughly taken into consideration in estimating the value of a life. We all know that a Scotchman does not yield in bodily or mental vigor to the Englishman, yet experience teaches us that the average weight of the former is less than that of the latter.\* Dr. James Forbes, when Professor of Natural Philosophy in Edinburgh, examined 800 students with reference to their physical development, distinguishing the natives of England, Scotland, and Ireland. He found the law established that development in every respect increases between 14 up to 26 years of age, but that the increase became slower as the age advanced. Our Scotch friends will be pleased to hear that, tested by Regnier's dynamometer, Scotchmen were superior to Englishmen in tractile power. This being measured by pounds, gives for

Englishmen at the age of 20 to 55,	366 to 384 lbs.
Scotchmen	" " 374 " 404 "
Irishmen	" " 397 " 413 "

Sedentary occupations, with an ample food-supply, tend to increase the weight, while it is reduced by employment involving continued open-air exercise and a tax upon the muscular system. An undue diminution of weight would be regarded with more suspicion early in life, as indicating impaired nutrition, and taken with any symptom, not by itself adequate to raise a doubt, that tended in the same direction, might justify rejection. On the other hand, an abnormal elevation of weight when manhood is established, though compatible with health if the occupation and mode of life be healthy, may imply a tendency to fatty degeneration, or to apoplectic affections where the concurrent circumstances are not equally favorable. In all these questions a certain latitude is unavoidable, and what is technically called circumstantial evidence must guide the inquirer in arriving at a conclusion. Dr. Purdon, in a recent pamphlet on life insurance, following Dr. Brinton,† allows a variation of 20 per cent. as compatible with health. This may be exceptionally true, but, practically, it is found where early deaths occur from constitutional disease that a smaller variation than this implies ought, at the time of insurance, to have attracted attention and commanded an increased rate, although no other indication of a hereditary or constitutional taint existed. Our own experience leads us more and more to regard the table as a valuable aid in determining the value of an applicant's life, and we regard with suspicion any material departure from the law it appears to involve.

\* Cowell's Factory Reports, quoted by Quetelet, vol. ii. p. 18.

† Quetelet, vol. ii. pp. 8 and 35, *et seq.*

‡ Vol. ii. p. 48.

§ Law of Increase, by F. B. Liharzik, M.D.: 1862. See also Aitken's Growth of the Recruit, and Dawson in *Statistical Journal*, March, 1862.

\* Aitken's Growth of the Recruit, pp. 44 and 71.

† On the Medical Selection of Lives for Assurance, 2d edition, 1856.

Any sudden change of weight demands still more careful consideration than a habitual departure from the normal standard. It may, as in an obese person, be the result of an illness that restores a healthy state of things, but it is more frequently the forerunner of disease; when it takes the form of reduction, we look for some morbid taint that induces wasting, as consumption; where it runs in the opposite direction, the prospect of life may be affected by alcoholism, by degeneration of the vessels, leading to cardiac, renal, or cerebral mischief, or by some analogous impairment of the nutritive powers.

Of all the points bearing upon the present health and the future prospects of an individual, there is probably none that exercises a greater influence and more deserves our attention, than his respiratory power as indicated by the development of his chest and its contents. It is fortunate that we possess more perfect means of gauging the power of the thoracic viscera, than are applicable to any other viscera of the body. We can not only measure the external dimensions of the chest and determine the physiological movements of its walls, but we are able to watch the process carried on within, by the stethoscope and by percussion, by the spirometer, and by the sphygmometer, with results that amount to almost absolute certainty. In the ordinary inquiries necessary for life insurance, it is scarcely practicable to bring all these methods of research to bear upon every candidate for insurance. But there can be no doubt that, were we not afraid of frightening the customer, or were time no consideration, a more careful application of the various tests of pulmonary capacity would prevent many lives from being passed as normal that now become claims at an earlier period than the medical examiner and his Board of Directors had reason to anticipate. Respiration and life may be regarded as synonymous, and we find that vital power may be measured by the manner in which the functions of respiration are carried on. Hence the stress that medical men, and even popular opinion, lays upon the value of a well-developed chest, which affords an indication of what Mr. Hutchinson was the first to term the vital capacity of the lungs. In ordinary quiet respiration the thorax is neither fully expanded, nor fully emptied of the contained air. To measure its entire capacity—i.e., to determine the whole amount of air which it is capable of taking in and discharging in one respiratory act—it is necessary that a forced inspiration and a forced expiration should be made. Even after the latter act, a portion of "residual air" remains in the lungs, which is entirely independent of the will, and always present in the chest. Mr. Hutchinson terms the air of ordinary respiration "breathing air;" that of forced inspiration "complemental air;" and that of forced expiration "reserve air." The following table shows how widely previous observers had differed as to the quantity of air belonging to each of these divisions. They regarded

Residual air as ranging from 40 to 260 cubic inches.	
Reserve air	77 170
Breathing air	3 100
Complemental air	119 200
Vital capacity	100 300

These discrepancies were due to Mr. Hutchinson's predecessors not having had regard to a variety of collateral circumstances which ought to be taken into account in estimating the process of respiration. These are especially the power of the muscles concerned in respiration, the circumference of the chest, the height and weight of the individual, the pulse, the number of respirations, and the age.

For a description of the methods, and especially of the spirometer, an instrument for measuring the air expelled during expiration, as well as for many details of great interest, we must refer the reader to the original paper by Mr. Hutchinson. It will suffice for the purpose of the present work to extract some of the chief practical results which he has attained.

The mean results of spirometrical measurements of the vital capacity of 1,923 men, belonging to different classes of society, arranged according to height, together with their mean weights, are compiled in the following table, from which it will appear that there is a definite increase of vital capacity closely proportionate to the increase in height:

*Mean Vital Capacity of 1,923 Men belonging to different Classes of Society.*

Under 5 ft.	135 cubic in.	92.26 weight in lbs.
5 ft. 0 in. to 5 ft. 1 in.	175	115.52
5 " 1 " " 5 " 2 "	177	124.33
5 " 2 " " 5 " 3 "	189	127.86
5 " 3 " " 5 " 4 "	193	138.01
5 " 4 " " 5 " 5 "	201	139.17
5 " 5 " " 5 " 6 "	214	144.93
5 " 6 " " 5 " 7 "	229	144.29
5 " 7 " " 5 " 8 "	228	152.59
5 " 8 " " 5 " 9 "	237	157.76
5 " 9 " " 5 " 10 "	246	166.40
5 " 10 " " 5 " 11 "	247	170.86
5 " 11 " " 5 " 12 "	259	171.45
Over six feet	276	218.66

The mean for all heights being 217 cubic inches.\*

When vital capacity is compared to weight, without reference to height, we fail to find the same progressive ratio of the respiratory power; thus the mean vital capacity of 147 men weighing 11 stone was 225 cubic inches; while that of 12 men of 14 stone only showed an increase of 8 cubic inches; so that, if there is, as we believe, a correlation between vitality or vital power and vital capacity, the man of lower weight has, *cæteris paribus*, the better prospect of longevity.

The vital capacity is found to increase from the age of 15 to 35, whereas from 35 to 65 it is decreased in the progression of 19, 11, and 13 cubic inches. It is remarkable, that although there is an exact relation between the circumference of the chest and weight, with which it increases in the exact arithmetic progression of 1 inch for every 10 lbs., Mr. Hutchinson was unable to find any such definite relation existing, as might be reasonably inferred, between the circumference of the chest and vital capacity. This result is so much opposed to the teachings of anatomy and vital dynamics, that although we cannot doubt the correctness of Mr. Hutchinson's observations, we think there must be some underlying fallacy dependent upon unobserved influences, or upon an insufficiency in the number of cases examined. Some of the points in his investigations have been confirmed in a remarkable manner by those of Dr. Balfour,† to whose researches we shall have an opportunity of alluding again, when we examine the bearing of spirometry upon chest-disease in connection with life insurance.

Very few remarks on the organs and functions of the body that we have not yet alluded to will bring to a close what we have to say in this chapter on the subject of the average man. There are no special tests by which we determine the healthy condition of the brain, or the abdominal viscera, as bearing upon life insurance. The absence of any morbid taint, which will form the subject of future chapters, must be taken as negative evidence of health, which is otherwise in-

\* The weights in the above table are the results obtained from a different and larger number of men than those examined for their vital capacity.

† Contributions to the Study of Spirometry, by J. G. G. Balfour, M.D., F.R.S.—*Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, 1860.

dicated by those evidences of normal development which we have recently discussed.

The decline of life commences at periods which vary with the variations of hereditary and acquired vigor of the individual. Any exhausting influences that sap the powers of innervation or nutrition in youth or manhood will cause a premature senility, which, without actual disease, impairs the prospect of life of the individual. As a general rule, it is found that persons who have borne the battle of life well, and have passed the climacteric unscathed, are good subjects for insurance. The higher rates are, of course, calculated for the probable duration of life, but the casualties from unforeseen disease are smaller than occur during the earlier decennia. Women have passed the dangers incidental to their sex, and men are no longer exposed to temptations and dangers which beset them in the heyday of youth and early manhood.

### Miscellaneous.

**LONGEVITY.**—Sir Duncan Gibb, M.D., LL.D., then read a paper upon "Longevity at Five Score Eleven Years." He said he had brought forward nine examples at previous meetings of the association of persons who had overstepped the century by several years, and now his tenth instance was that of a female still living at Tring, in Hertfordshire, who attained her hundred and eleventh birthday in April last. Tables were quoted containing 84 instances of persons whose age extended from 107 to 175; 40 of these were under 130, and 44 above that age, and the author considered that three-fourths of the total number might be taken as correct. The proof of that was the instance he brought forward of Mrs. Elizabeth Leatherland, now alive and in her 111th year, her baptism being recorded in the register of the parish of Dover, in Kent. This was confirmed by the drowning of her son and his family, and other persons to the number of 37, at Hadlow, in Kent, in 1853, in the hop country, by a catastrophe mentioned and described in the papers of the time. Her son was then fifty-nine, and if now alive would have been eighty, his birth occurring when his mother was twenty-nine or thirty. Other corroborative circumstances were stated, clearly establishing the great age of the old dame, who was of gypsy descent. The author then described her condition, the result of a careful personal examination at Tring, in October, 1873. She walked with the aid of a stick, was short in stature, bent with age, complexion brownish, countenance a series of thick folds, and she had several sound teeth. She chatted away continually in a clear, distinct voice, and was in possession of all her faculties, though somewhat impaired. She was a little deaf, and took snuff; her skin was as soft as velvet, and her hair quite gray. She was thin, and the muscles of her neck stood out in bold relief. All her internal organs were in perfect health—lungs, heart, etc.—and her pulse was as regular and as soft as in a girl of eighteen. In fact, the changes of old age as met with in persons from seventy to eighty had not taken place in any of the tissues of the body, being thus similar to the nine other cases examined by the author. She was, of course, feeble; but, taking all things together, that did not prevent her reaching to her present exceptionally great age. Her age, the author said, taught us two lessons—one was the absence of senile changes for the most part in centenarians, which was the chief reason of their attaining to such a great age; the other the occurrence now and then

of instances wherein even six score years is reached, if not more. To ignore all past cases of extreme ultracentenarian longevity because we cannot get at their proofs at the present day, he considered unphilosophical and unscientific, for there existed as conscientious and painstaking inquirers after truth then as exist now, whose statements and recorded facts must not be wholly ignored, as every honest investigator well knows.—*The Doctor.*

**RECENT ACTION OF PHYSICIANS IN GERMANY.**—One of the principal tasks of the German Medical Association, during its recent session at Eisenach, June 10, 1874, was to remove, if possible, the grounds for the unpleasant relations which have hitherto existed between the medical examiners and the life insurance companies. As is well known, this feeling of dissatisfaction had reached such a pitch that a number of medical societies, especially those of the Grand Duchy of Baden, passed resolutions refusing out-and-out to furnish family physicians' certificates to life insurance companies. By mutual concessions on the part of the companies as well as of the physicians, it was decided at Eisenach to abide by the following rules:—

1. The written consent of the applicant was invariably to be obtained before calling upon the physician for a certificate; and this consent was to be so worded that the physician would feel himself at full liberty to testify without reserve regarding the applicant's past and present physical history.

2. The printed questions of the certificate were to be framed in such a way that the physician could answer them without having an interview with or examining the applicant.

3. The physician was invariably to send his certificate directly to the main office of the company, and under no circumstance to deliver it to an agent or any third party.

4. This certificate was to be considered by the company as a confidential communication from the physician.

5. The regular fee (5 reichsmark = ?) for this certificate was to be paid in all cases by the company.

Upon this basis peace has at last been restored between the companies and the physicians.—*Deutsche Versicherungs-Zeitung.*

In the meantime a Committee appointed for that purpose is preparing a form of application and medical examiner's report, which, if adopted by the Chamber, will prove an important step toward collecting valuable medical statistics. Our only regret is that a blank similar to the one now under discussion was not put in use years ago, as in that case we should now be able to work out the answers to many interesting medical questions.

**INEBRIETY AND INSANITY.**—According to the most recent reports of the Scotch Insane Asylums, out of 615 cases of insanity, 149 (24 per cent.) were demonstrably due to the immoderate use of alcoholic drinks. These figures show how great an importance life insurance companies should attach to moderation in the habits of those whom they propose to insure.—*Deutsche Versicherungs-Zeitung.*

**THE CHAMBER OF LIFE INSURANCE.**—No decision has yet been reached on the different medical questions which have been brought before this body for consideration. An adjourned meeting will be held during the present month, when the discussion of these questions will be resumed.

BY NATHAN ALLEN, M. D.

These documents, just published, contain the material for very important and valuable information. If their pages are chiefly filled with figures, presented in tabular form, in a great variety of ways, and looking very uninviting, still, a careful analysis of them may give us some very important and instructive knowledge of which we should not be ignorant. Let us look at one fact, viz., *increase of population*, with particular reference in its application to the State of Massachusetts.

More than usual interest had been expressed respecting the result of the U. S. census of 1870, inasmuch as the country had gone through with greater changes from 1860 to 1870, than ever in any previous decade of years. There were two great events, viz., the liberation of the Slave, and the war of the Rebellion. What effects had these two great changes upon the increase of population? Some calculation could be made as to increase of numbers by immigration from abroad, but scarcely a conjecture could be formed as to the full effect or extent of influence which these new and complicated changes might show in the census. Various judgments were expressed. While all admitted that the rate of increase this decade must be less than in preceding decades, there was wide difference of opinions among the best informed as to what might be the actual result.

In 1860, the population of the United States was 31,399,300, and in 1870 the new census showed it to be 38,558,371,—an increase of seven millions. According to the gain from 1840 to 1850, and 1850 to 1860, the increase in this last decade should have been between three and four millions more. This lack of increase is in part accounted for by a loss from natural increase of about one-half million of colored people, on account of the sudden changes in their liberation from slavery, and also by the loss of about one million of persons in the Union and Confederate Armies, whose deaths were occasioned by the war. Then the continuance of the war some four years, calling from their homes more than a million of men, must have had a great effect upon the increase of population. But the last cause of this diminution of numbers is thus expressed in the Census Report itself:

"A fifth cause may be alluded to, namely, the notorious growth of habits of life in many sections of the country, which tend strongly to reduce the rate of national increase, and which, if persisted in, will make the showing of another census hardly so satisfactory as the present, even without a devastating war to account for the loss of hundreds of thousands in hospital and on the battlefield. *No one can be familiar with life in the Eastern and Middle States generally, and in the Western cities, and not be aware that children are not born to American parents as they were in the early days of the country. Luxury, fashion, and the vice of 'boarding,' combine to limit the increase of families to a degree that in some sections have threatened the perpetuation of our native stock. This tendency is not one that requires to be brought out by statistical comparison. It is patent, palpable, and needs no proof.*"

These last sentences we have italicised, as they contain so much truth, and are clothed with the highest official authority. They confirm the correctness of statements made by the writer in various articles which have been published in different periodicals and newspapers. The words, "Luxury, fashion, and the vice of 'boarding,'" are very expressive and are full of meaning; they cover a multitude of wrongs, sins,—the violations of physical and moral law. How far, or to what extent these wrongs or violations of law may be prevented, we will not here undertake to decide, but the fact that "our native stock"—the best in many respects the world ever witnessed—should in time fail of "perpetuation," ought to teach us lessons of warning, if not instruction. It shows something wrong in the family relation, in our modes of education, and industrial pursuits, if not in the type of our present civilization and Christianity.

Let us now see how the Registration Report of births and deaths in Massachusetts harmonizes with the Census. In 1860 the population of this State was 1,131,065, and in 1865 it was 1,267,031, showing a gain of only about 37,000. But these years were war times. In the late census, 1870, it was 1,457,351, making a great gain, viz., 190,320, in these five years, viz., from 1865 to 1870. This gain is made up partly by the excess of immigration over emigration,—which is nearly all of foreign origin or descent—and partly by the excess of births over the deaths. While no exact line in this last way of increase can be drawn between what is purely American and what is foreign, some approximation can be made towards its correctness.

In 1860, the census returned 260,114, in Massachusetts, as born out of the United States, and in 1870, this class had increased to 353,319 making a gain here purely foreign of 93,205. This leaves 97,115, as the balance in the whole increase from 1860 to 1870, classed under the head of Native. But unless the terms "native" and "foreign" are carefully scrutinized, there is danger of being misled. These terms as here used refer solely to *place of birth* or nativity, and not to race or nationality. Consequently great numbers, both of children and adults, classed under the head American, because born in this country, are really foreign, that is, of foreign descent.

This class is made up of two generations extending back fifty years or more; and, from the best estimates we can make, it must amount in Massachusetts to considerably over 100,000 persons. This number must be deducted from the American column and transferred to the foreign. This change shows that, probably, full one-third part of the whole population of the State is composed of this class. And not only so, but this portion is relatively increasing every year much faster than the strictly American, as will appear by the report of Births. We take the figures in the last registration report, which is a fair exhibit of previous years.

The whole number of births, 1870, was 38,250; classed as of American parentage 15,563; foreign 18,339; American father and foreign mother 1787; foreign father and American mother, 2,256; these are nearly all of foreign descent, as there is but little intermarrying between the strictly American, and foreign. The term "American" and "foreign" as used here denote simply the place of birth. Then, these should be added to the foreign column, making over 22,000. But this is not all. A large number of births classed among those of American parentage, are strictly of foreign descent, styled here American simply because the parents were born in this country. What may be the exact number of this class, it is impossible to decide, but in all probability, it amounts to two or three thousand. From the above figures then it is evident that the number of births of foreign descent in this State is considerably more than is reported, in fact it is almost twice as large as, the strictly American. Now, admitting that the mortality is much larger in the former class than in the latter, there is a wide margin for much more increase with the foreign. Besides, a careful examination of the increase of population in the State by the last census report shows that this gain is confined almost exclusively to those towns and cities containing a large foreign element, and, that in whatever towns or places there has been a decrease of numbers or but little increase, the population is almost entirely American.

A great change is taking place, not merely in the numbers but in the character of our people. The country towns and rural districts, the places remote from railroads and marts of trade, are becoming deserted to enlarge our villages and cities. Nearly all our manual labor, whether domestic, agricultural or mechanical, is now being performed by those of foreign birth or descent. Says the compiler of this registration report:

"The character of our population is undergoing a great change. Surely, and not very slowly, a mixed stock of Irish, German and Canadians is taking the place of the purely English stock which has possessed Massachusetts for more than two centuries. The tide of immigration flows the stronger with an increasing wealth and general prosperity. There is much hard work to be done, unskilled labor is in demand, and Americans are not ready or willing to supply it from their own ranks. These are facts for the statesman, the educator and the moralist."

What is to be the final result of these changes, time only can determine.

The foregoing article appeared in *The Congregationalist*, of Boston, in June, since which time reference has been made to the same subject by two other important documents. Connected with the Bureau of Education at Washington, established by Government, a pamphlet has recently been published upon Vital Statistics. In this document we find some valuable tables and diagrams, showing the birth and death-rate in different States and at different periods of time. Dr. J. M. Toner, the compiler, in explaining and commenting upon these tables, has these remarks: "With a desire to view this question of birth-rate from a stand-point that would be sufficiently comprehensive, and yet free from even the appearance of preconceived notions or sectional partiality, I have made something of a study of what the records of the United States census teach upon the subject of population, in its enumeration by ages; also of births, deaths, &c. From this source I find undoubted evidence of a gradual decline in the proportion of children under 15 to the number of women between 15 and 50 years of age in our country. I do not propose to adopt any theory or to explain this extraordinary condition. But it is proper that the profession and the country should be made acquainted with the facts, and made to realize that *the American people in this particular are showing unmistakable signs of physical degeneracy. I have embodied facts only, and leave the enlightened understanding of the American people to assign the reasons, from the evidence everywhere around them, and to supply the remedy.* Dr. Allen, of Lowell, Mass., has written several able papers and done good service to the country and humanity, by calling attention to this subject."

In the *Popular Science Monthly*, for August, is an article "On the Causes of Physical Degeneracy, by Dr. A. K. Gardner, of New York," in which he arrives at results similar to the statements in the above papers, and also makes a complimentary allusion to the writer. However pleasant such references (and we might cite many others) may be personally, we are more gratified in finding that the conclusions formed many years since are being confirmed by such high authorities, and, when we see the community waking up "to apply the remedy" to these evils, it will afford us far higher gratification.—[*Vox Populi*, Oct. 16.]

Vital Statistics

Decreased  
births

W

Mass

4

M. S.

*Allen*

Caution in  
use of figures for  
vital statistics

[Cause of variations in stability] See p. 116

General Inspection

*[Handwritten signature]*

is a wider  
 the former  
 nitting that  
 arise as the  
 reported, in  
 this State is  
 number of  
 above figures  
 s to two or  
 decide, but in  
 number of this  
 this country.  
 imply because  
 foreign descent  
 re of American  
 ing number of  
 ing over 25,000.  
 id be added to  
 by the place of  
 and "foreign"  
 ican, and foreign.  
 afterwards the pe-  
 foreign descent,  
 mother, 3,526;  
 per 1787; foreign  
 18,330; American  
 s of American des-  
 r of birth, 1870.

which is a fair ex-  
e figures in the last  
in by the report of  
in the strictly Amer-  
ly increasing every  
not only so, but this  
State is composed of  
d part of the whole  
age shows that prop-  
and transferred to the  
e be deducted from the  
over 100,000 persons  
ount in Massachusetts  
best estimates we can  
back fifty years or more;  
usage of two genera-

# CITY BULLETIN.

## Mortality in Philadelphia During 1866.

The official year at the office of the Registrar of Births, Marriages and Deaths closed at noon to-day, and from the reports of Mr. George E. Chambers, the Registrar, we are enabled to present the following statement of the mortality of the city during 1866:

Total number of deaths in 1866, - - 16,803  
 " " " 1865, - - 17,169

Decrease, - - - - - 366

Number of deaths in each month of 1866, were:

January, -	- 1,402	July, -	- 2,047
February, -	- 1,156	August, -	- 2,401
March, -	- 1,082	September, -	- 1,362
April, -	- 1,034	October, -	- 1,828
May, -	- 1,304	November, -	- 1,037
June, -	- 1,168	December, -	- 932

Of the whole number in 1866 there were

Adults, -	- - - - -	8,002
Minors, -	- - - - -	8,801
Males, -	- - - - -	8,851
Females, -	- - - - -	7,952
Boys, -	- - - - -	4,616
Girls, -	- - - - -	4,185

The ages were as follows: Under one year, 4,491; from one to two years, 1,469; two to five years, 1,418; five to ten years, 696; ten to fifteen years, 301; fifteen to twenty years, 426; twenty to thirty years, 163; thirty to forty years, 1,607; forty to fifty years, 1,305; fifty to sixty years, 1,111; sixty to seventy years, 1,069; seventy to eighty years, 783; eighty to ninety years, 396; ninety to one hundred years, 87; one hundred to one hundred and ten years, 13.

The nativities of the deceased were:

United States, -	- - - - -	12,467
Foreign, -	- - - - -	3,438
Unknown, -	- - - - -	898

The number of deaths in each Ward was as follows:

Ward. No.	Ward. No.	Ward. No.
1st, 661	10th, 471	19th, 1062
2d, 821	11th, 446	20th, 907
3d, 554	12th, 358	21st, 345
4th, 755	13th, 413	22d, 378
5th, 629	14th, 527	23d, 366
6th, 374	15th, 921	24th, 1392
7th, 975	16th, 514	25th, 348
8th, 477	17th, 703	26th, 582
9th, 378	18th, 707	Unknown, 7

From the Almshouse there were 668: from the country, 643; and people of color, 937.

Total deaths from cholera during the year, 908.

9281  
H. J. Brown

**F. L. FETHERSTON. Publisher.**

**BLE SHEET, THREE CENTS.**

ad raised. It does not seem any  
ap longer to be a mere matter of choice whether  
n- we will assist these people or not. The  
re question of negro suffrage, which meets us  
en at every turn, is one which must necessarily  
se be decided before very long. It is for us  
as now to say whether this power shall be put  
e, into the hands of an ignorant and readily  
deceived people, who will fall any easy prey  
ry, to every unscrupulous politician who comes  
ssy across their path, or whether we shall so in-  
of struct them, that, when the day dawns  
he which shall give them the full rights of  
ng manhood, they may be ready to fulfil their  
ec- duty with a full understanding of the re-  
ed sponsibility of their new position. The fu-  
d, ture of this people depends (humanly  
or speaking) in great measure upon what we  
of the North will do for them to-day. Close  
ne your hearts and tighten your purse-strings  
d if you will, but in the days to come you  
v- will lament the short-sighted policy which  
ed refused to elevate and assist those who now  
in stretch out beseeching hands, and call with  
ws imploring voices to you for your sympathy  
nce and aid.

It had been the hope of the "Women's  
Freedmen's Relief Association" to devote,  
henceforth, all their time and energies to  
the cause of education, but there is even  
now, at this early season, so much want and  
suffering, that they are again compelled to  
call upon aid societies and individuals for  
the very necessities of life for these unfor-  
tunate people. Letters are constantly com-  
ing to the members of the Freedmen's As-  
sociation from different parts of the South,  
telling sorrowful tales of the destitution  
that exists there. Both corn and cotton crops  
have in many places utterly failed, and they  
have before them the prospect of a long win-  
ter of suffering and misery. In addition to